

Ed.
370.6
N214b nos. 39-43, 1932

BULLETIN OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

*Issued Five Times a Year
January, March, April, May, and October*

JANUARY, 1932

Entered as second-class matter, December 29, 1925, at the postoffice at Berwyn, Illinois, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage, provided for in Section 412, Act of February 26, 1925, authorized March 30, 1927.

BULLETIN NUMBER 39

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration

Prepared under the Direction of
D. H. EIKENBERRY
Ohio State University

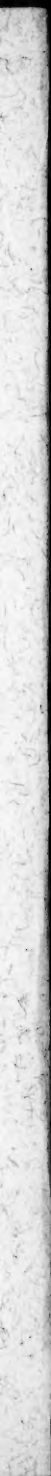
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NOTICE TO THE MEMBERS:

There are a few double rooms left that may be reserved at the Wardman-Park Hotel, Washington, D. C., for our meeting of February 22 to 24 inclusive, 1932.

Send your reservations direct to the Wardman-Park Hotel, Washington, D. C.

Special Notice

If any high-school principal desires to have a special letter sent to his board of education or to his superintendent, in which it is urged that he be sent to this meeting with his expenses paid, he should send the name and address of the one to whom such a letter should be directed to the secretary, H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.

ABSTRACTS OF UNPUBLISHED MASTER'S THESES IN THE FIELD OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

(The Ohio State University)

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TENTATIVE PROGRAM

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

WASHINGTON, D. C.

February 22-24

1932

(All meetings to be held in Wardman Park Hotel)

GENERAL SESSION

Monday, February 22

2 p. m.

GOLD ROOM, WARDMAN PARK HOTEL

PRESIDENT C. H. THRELKELD, *Presiding*

- I. "Principals of Secondary Education"
Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Education,
Teachers College, Columbia University
- II. "Major Aspects of the National Survey of Secondary
Education"
Dr. Leonard V. Koos, Professor of Education,
Chicago, Illinois
- III. "Interpreting the High School to the Public"
Dr. Belmont Farley, Ass't Director,
Division of Publications, N. E. A.

DISCUSSION GROUPS**Tuesday, February 23****10 a. m.****GROUP NO. 1—Gold Room, Wardman Park Hotel.**

**"Aims and Activities of Supervisors," Progress Report,
National Survey of Education**

**Dr. Roy O. Billett, Specialist in School Administration,
U. S. Office of Education.**

Discussion

**Mr. H. D. Weber, Principal, Junior-Senior High School,
Batavia, N. Y.**

**Mr. Arthur M. Seybold, Headmaster, Oak Lane Country
Day School of Temple University, Oak Lane,
Philadelphia, Penn.**

Discussion from the floor**GROUP NO. 2—East Lobby, Wardman Park Hotel**

**"Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools," Progress
Report, National Survey of Education**

**Dr. W. C. Reavis, Professor of Education,
University of Chicago.**

Discussion

**Mr. John H. Bosshart, Superintendent of Schools,
South Orange, N. J.**

(One other speaker to be selected).

Discussion from the floor**GROUP NO. 3—Theatre, Wardman Park Hotel**

"Extra-Curriculum Activities"

**Dr. Elbert K. Fretwell, Professor of Education,
Teachers College, Columbia University**

Discussion

**Dr. Lucy L. W. Wilson, Principal, South Philadelphia
High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Penn.**

(One other speaker to be announced).

Discussion from the floor**GROUP NO. 4—West Lobby, Wardman Park Hotel**

(To be announced).

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Tuesday, February 23

2:15 p. m.

GROUP NO. 1—Gold Room, Wardman Park Hotel

Research Section, Dr. Charles H. Judd, Dean of School of Education, University of Chicago, Chairman.

Special Reports

1. "Study Habits of Excellent and of Deficient Pupils"
Mr. F. L. Bacon, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois
2. "Professional Work in the Field in Minnesota."
Mr. Charles W. Boardman, Professor of Education and Principal of the University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
3. "Outside Reading by Senior High School Pupils in Minnesota," Mr. Robert D. Cole, Professor of Secondary Education, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota.
4. "Class Size," Mr. S. N. Evan, Jr. Principal, Lansdowne High School, Lansdowne, Penn.
5. "How Teachers in the Secondary Schools in a City System Spend Their Salaries," Mr. William F. Ewing, Assistant Superintendent, Public Schools, Oakland, California.

Discussion from the floor

GROUP NO. 2—Theatre, Wardman Park Hotel

"What the High Schools are Doing for the Individual,"

Progress Report, National Survey of Education

Dr. Roy O. Billett, Specialist in School Administration, U. S. Office of Education.

Discussion

Mr. John H. Tyson, Principal, Senior High School, Upper Darby, Penn.

(One speaker to be announced)

Discussion from the floor

GROUP NO. 3—East Lobby, Wardman Park Hotel

"Practices and Problems in Improving the Articulation between High School and College"—Progress Report.

National Survey of Education

Dr. R. Roy Brammell, U. S. Office of Education.

10 DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Discussion

Mr. Harold A. Ferguson, Principal, Senior High School
Montclair, New Jersey.

(One other speaker to be announced)

GROUP NO. 4—West Lobby, Wardman Park Hotel
"Mental Hygiene"

Dr. Frank N. Freeman, Professor of Education,
University of Chicago.

Discussion

(Two speakers to be announced).

Discussion from the floor

DISCUSSION GROUPS

Wednesday, February 24, 1931

10 a. m.

**I. Junior High-School Section—East Lobby, Wardman Park
Hotel**

**"Is the Junior High-School Organization Superior to the
Conventional Organization?—A Report on Nation-Wide
Practice."**

Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, Professor of Education,
Harvard University.

Discussion

(Two speakers to be announced).

Discussion from the floor

**II. Senior High-School Section—Theatre, Wardman Park
Hotel**

"The Educational Implications of the Pennsylvania Study."

Dr. Ben O. Wood, Professor of Education, Teachers
College, Columbia University.

Discussion from the floor

**III. Junior-College Section—Florentine Room, Wardman Park
Hotel**

"Relative Merits of the 6-4-4 Plan of Organization."

Dr. George F. Zook, President, University of Akron,
Akron, Ohio.

"Relative Merits of the 6-3-3-2 Plan of Organization"

Dr. Walter C. Ells, Professor of Education,
Stanford University.

**IV. Technical and Vocational School Section—West Lobby,
Wardman Park Hotel**

(Program to be announced).

LUNCHEON MEETING—GOLD ROOM

Wednesday, February 24

12:30 noon

Luncheon

Election of Officers

Address—"George Washington—A Human Study"—

Tom Skeyhill

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Bulletin of the
Department of Secondary-School
Principals of the
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January, March, April, May, and October

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Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in
the Field of Secondary-School Administration

(Theses completed and presented at The Ohio State
University)

Prepared under the Direction of

D. H. Eikenberry, Professor of School Administration,
Ohio State University

Edited by

O. F. Nixon, Assistant in School Administration,
Ohio State Administration

BULLETIN NUMBER 39

All communications for secondary-school administration abstract service should be directed to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois; J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois, Executive Secretary of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

These abstracts are free to all members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

**ABSTRACTS OF UNPUBLISHED MASTERS' THESES
IN THE FIELD OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION**

(Theses completed and prepared at the Ohio State University)

The abstracts contained in this bulletin were prepared at the invitation of Executive Secretary H. V. Church of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association under the general direction of Professor D. H. Eikenberry. These theses were completed in the Department of School Administration of the Ohio State University during the period 1925-1931 under the supervision of various instructors including Professors E. E. Lewis, D. H. Eikenberry, W. G. Reeder, A. O. Heck, C. C. McCracken, J. Cayce Morrison, W. J. Osburn, and T. C. Holy. First drafts of the abstracts were prepared by members of two seminar groups in high school administration. These were carefully checked, revised and edited by O. F. Nixon and Professor D. H. Eikenberry.

PART I. STUDIES DEALING WITH THE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. Baird, Philip Edward. *Procedures Utilized In Ohio High Schools to Simplify Closing the School Year*. August, 1930. Pp. 332.

Problem. The study is conducted with the view of determining current practices as to what things are required, and what techniques have been developed to the end that the work of closing the school year is simplified, completed, and equitably distributed. Prior to 1929 there was but little material in the educational literature on this topic. The study was limited to a study of the high schools of Ohio with an enrollment above 250 pupils.

Source of Data. A questionnaire containing items judged pertinent by 15 school administration students was returned by 71 out of the 212 Ohio High Schools of this size. This information was returned either by the principal or superintendents of schools.

Technique of the Study. A normative study of all the items included in the questionnaire was made under five divisions of high schools on the basis of pupil enrollments as follows:

Group I.....	250	499	Group IV.....	1500	1999
Group II.....	500	999	Group V.....	2000	2999
Group III.....	1000	1499	Group VI.....	4000	4999

This information was tabulated in 259 tables and generalizations from these statistics are made by the author.

Findings and Conclusions. The first finding of especial interest deals with the problem of releasing information to the teacher having to do with the closing of the school. Twenty-eight per cent of the schools issue instructions one month in advance, 15% advise six weeks in advance, and 10% have no regular time. Just why such situations endure and what effect they have on the efficiency is not reported. This information in common practice is given at teachers' meetings, and through written instructions.

The annual reports by accrediting agencies are found to have been analyzed in such a way that the sources of data may be identified by 70% of the administrators, yet only 22% have put this into written form. Also a majority of schools have supplementary forms which seem to indicate that few

items must be the same on each blank. Only 3 schools reported the use of a manual providing for the cumulative recording of report data throughout the year by the teacher, yet 56% of the principals thought that it would be a benefit to have one. It seems as though the administrator is not making the best of his opportunity to lighten the work of report making.

Continuing the study of reports it is noted that the nature of reports and the making of the reports show a wide diversity for Ohio high schools. It is not possible to show that the principal has distributed the responsibility for such reports upon any conscious division of labor policy. Nor can one say that the principal has worked out a scheme of delegation of duties.

Certain duties, called tasks by the author, because they must be completed by the teacher, are shared by only a few teachers. This concentration may signify that a few teachers carry all the responsibility through a poorly planned program. In other words, the old saying to the effect that once an administrator finds a teacher able and willing to assume responsibility he will work the teacher to the utmost seems to have some substantiation in actual practice.

In the recording of information of historical or traditional value the high school principals are found to rely on memory in the majority of cases. Just how well this is conveyed to the principal's successor is not revealed. Only 10 principals admitted the use of a standard record book or scrapbook for the keeping of this information. The report does not reveal the completeness or utilization of the record book which has been devised for the local school by the principal.

School and extra-curricular calendars were included in this study because an improper spacing of the events included under these terms would result in a poor distribution of the teacher's work throughout the year. The study brought to light a wide-spread use of the calendar in that only 7 out of 71 schools did not have a school calendar. It is very interesting to note the reasons assigned by the principal for the use of the school calendar.

- (1) Only 28% of the principals used the school calendar as an agency for early closing of the social program.
- (2) Schools over 3000 in enrollment did not use calendars to avoid conflicts with community affairs.

- (3) Schools over 1000 did not make extensive use of the calendar to insure attendance of teachers and pupils at school functions.
- (4) Seventy-six per cent of the schools make use of the school calendar to avoid congestion at the close of the year.
- (5) Seventy-seven per cent of the principals use the school calendar to keep the teachers informed.

A normative study showing the trend as to when events are authorized and scheduled reveals the recognition by these agencies of the need for early selection of dates. Departmental meetings are the only events announced frequently under less than two weeks notice. In making pupil study programs the subjective evidence is opposed to the program made in terms of the students' entire high school career. This part of the survey does not seem conclusive enough to be of much value.

The social side of the closing of school is worked out well in this survey. It was found that the junior-senior banquet, senior play, baccalaureate sermon, and graduation are the back-bone of the social activities at the close of the year. This fact becomes more pertinent to the study when the general trends place the baccalaureate sermon, graduation and alumni banquet all in the last week of school. It is a significant fact that the principal far exceeds any other person in responsibility for graduation events.

A tentative organization which may be used to bring the school year to a close is the high-light of the thesis. The author has worked out a definition of "closing the school year" from this survey. "Closing the school year is an entity, a unity. It embraces the planning and necessary activity to bring about a survey of the past with prediction of and a preparation for the future. It is not confined to a day, a week, a month, or a year. It is so purposefully conceived and administered that it provides for uniformity of results, completeness of detail, intelligibility of instruction, ease of supervision, and equalization of labor."

2. Farmer, John Dunn. *The Function of the High School Principal in Selection and Dismissal of His Teachers*. August, 1926. Pp. 83.

Problem. The problem involved in this study was to determine the function of the high school principal in the selec-

tion and dismissal of teachers. It is limited to the study of schools in West Virginia and the Atlantic seaboard states.

Sources of Data. Data were secured from one hundred sixty high schools in West Virginia and from eighty-two selected among the states of the Atlantic seaboard. The school laws of the states studied were also examined to determine the legal status of principals in this respect.

A questionnaire was sent to two hundred twelve schools in West Virginia and to one hundred fifty schools in the Atlantic states. The principal questions asked were:

- (1) What do principals do in regard to selection and dismissal of teachers?
- (2) What do principals think they ought to do?
- (3) Would this increase in responsibility improve the school system?

Findings and Conclusions. The study shows that sixty-two percent of the principals of West Virginia, not under the direct supervision of a superintendent, have the right to say what teachers shall be employed, although the study was qualified by saying that in many cases the boards of education were willing to listen to the principal as long as some of their relatives or friends were not candidates for positions. These principals just mentioned, have the power of superintendents in that they are responsible for the conduct of the buildings where they teach, and are often the educational head of the community. Twenty-eight per cent of the principals in West Virginia controlled the employment of teachers as against twenty-five percent of the principals located on the Atlantic seaboard. Many principals do not have the privilege of approving teachers for their schools. However, many principals have considerable influence with their superintendents in the selection of candidates, and many principals are satisfied with things as they are. The principal should have the right to have something to say to the superintendent as to the teacher assigned but the tenor of thought seems to be that the principal should stand in the same relation to the superintendent as the superintendent does to the board of education. The training of principals in West Virginia runs from two and one-half years to six years of college work, with the median at four and three-tenths years. The principal should have the same power in dismissal as in appointment, although dismissal of teachers through the school year is uncommon, and usually

only for gross immorality or misconduct. In two states, New York and Massachusetts, the tenure laws define the method of dismissal.

The principal's duties and responsibilities are nowhere very clearly defined. Twenty-two and six-tenths percent have their duties defined by the board of education; thirty-four and six-tenths are defined by the superintendent. Thirty-two and five-tenths percent consult with the board of education; sixty-five and five-tenths percent consult with the superintendent. About three-fourths of the principals talked things over with their superintendents. In many cases they were not asked to do so. The duties of the principal should be clearly defined and should not be less than those of the manager of any important industry. This does not obtain in practice. In a system having a superintendent the principal should be directly responsible to the superintendent. None of the eleven states studied had any legal provision which gave the principal authority over teacher employment or dismissal. The following facts are set forth as assumptions in respect to this study:

- (1) The high schools are the colleges of the people.
- (2) The most strategic point of the system is the principal.
- (3) The principal should be an educator as well as a teacher.
- (4) The principal should be more than the superintendent's errand boy.
- (5) He should be a community leader.
- (6) Principals think that added authority would improve schools.
- (7) The high school principal will grow and develop with added authority.
- (8) Nothing should be done which will curtail the power of the superintendent.

It is recommended that a provision be inserted in the state law which would delegate to the principals, not under the superintendent directly, power in the selection and dismissal of teachers. The existing law should be amended so that teachers can be employed only when approved by the superintendent or principal in charge. Superintendents should delegate the power of selection of teachers for their building to the principals of the building. Teachers should not be assigned

to a building without the consent of the principal. Principals should be expected to be well qualified for their work, and a master's degree is recommended as the minimum. It is believed that the professionalizing of the principalship would lead to increased efficiency of the secondary schools.

3. Holmes, Jay William. *The Administration of Supervision in the Junior High School*. August, 1928. Pp. 120.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to find out (1) the theory of the administration of supervision in the junior high school, and (2) the practice of administration of supervision in the junior high school. The study is limited to cities of 30,000 or more inhabitants taken from the 1920 census. Only junior high schools are included in this survey. Problem (2) is limited to the state of Ohio, and Problem (1) is a national investigation.

Sources of Data. A careful study was made of all the schools in Dayton, Ohio, through visitation. A questionnaire containing 16 main items was prepared and sent to deans of colleges of education in all state universities, to one large university or college in those states having no state universities or colleges, to all colleges in Ohio, to a number of large universities not included above, and to a number of authors on junior high school administration and supervision. To ascertain the practice of supervision, questionnaires were sent to all school superintendents in cities whose population was 30,000 or more.

Technique of the Study. The techniques of this thesis are both historical and normative. It is historical in that information concerning the present status of schools relative to administration of supervision was compiled and normative in that present authorities were consulted and asked for an opinion or policy of administration of supervision.

Findings and Conclusions. 1. The junior high school has come to be recognized almost universally as an integral part of the public school system. With the exception of a few cities the included grades are 7-8-9, and are usually segregated in separate buildings for junior high schools. This practice is in keeping with the opinions of the majority of experts in this field.

2. The office of the assistant superintendent increases in frequency as the size of the city increases. In smaller cities (30,000 to 59,999 population) 27% reported assistant super-

intendents for the junior high schools; in medium sized cities (60,000 to 99,999 population) 42% reported assistant superintendents; in larger cities (100,000 to 199,999 population) 70% reported assistant superintendents and in the largest cities (200,000 or more population) 93% reported assistant superintendents. About 60% of experts recommended this office for cities over 200,000 population.

3. The junior high school principal should be and usually is assisted in his supervisory functions by assistant superintendent, subject supervisor, department head or special supervisor.

4. There is little uniformity in the range of jurisdiction of special supervisors. About 62% of the cities have a longitudinal scheme of supervision for physical education, only 60% of educational experts suggest this plan. Nearly 75% of all junior high schools have the department supervisor of art. Theorists affirm this, although about one-half suggest the entire system for a range, and the other half believe that the elementary and secondary departments should be separate.

5. There is no apparent unity in theory and in practice of the departmentalizing of vocal and instrumental music.

6. There seems to be a growing tendency to confine the scope of penmanship to the first six grades. As a whole this tendency agrees with expert opinion.

7. The supervisory officers less often found and less often suggested are those for commercial work, libraries, English, foreign languages, and sciences.

8. Supervisors are generally responsible for methods of teaching. They are cooperatively responsible with the principal and teachers for the formulation and revision of the curriculum. The supervisors usually have no administrative responsibilities, as the cities increase in size the special teachers are increasingly responsible to the building principal rather than to the special supervisor.

9. In practically all cases the principal is consulted about possible changes in the personnel of his special teachers. The principal has the privilege of consulting the superintendent regarding appointment of special teachers in 96% of the schools. The principal has the privilege to modify the curriculum to meet his local needs in 46% of the schools; 26% grant him this privilege with limitations. All authorities agree that the principal should have this right.

10. Department heads are found in 60% of cities and are all paid more for this work.

11. The responsibility of the principal for the work of special classes varies with the size of the cities. In smaller cities 73% hold the principal responsible; in the second group of cities 73%; in the third group of cities 69%; and in the fourth group 93%. Authorities center this responsibility on the principal.

12. Directions are given to the special teachers through the principal in 16% of the cities; directly to the special teachers in 48% of the cities, and by means of both in 36% of the cities. One-half of the cities which use the last two ways hold the principal responsible for results.

13. Few cities or professors of education appear to have multigraphed or printed matter regarding their plans of administration of supervisors.

4. Levering, James Stewart. *Faculty Participation in Secondary School Administration*. June, 1929. Pp. 128.

Problem. The study aims to determine the prevalent policies and procedures in use in delegating administrative duties to faculty members, individually, in committees or as a group. It is divided into two sections; (1) faculty cooperation with administration through suggestions and helpful opinions; and (2) assuming responsibility for those activities the functions of which is to direct the general control and operation of the school program.

Limitations. "The question considered is limited to the extent to which the secondary school principal delegates responsibility and the privilege of administrative participation to his subordinates, and to the personal opinions of the principals upon practices and policies used in delegating certain duties." Limited to Junior-Senior, Senior and Undivided traditional plan high schools in the forty-eight states.

Source of Data. Questionnaires were sent to the principals of representative high schools in each of the 48 states. Magazines and books dealing especially and generally with the problem under consideration also were utilized.

Techniques of the Study. The normative and historical methods of making the study were used. The general practices and trends of faculty participation in administrative duties, as determined through a questionnaire and the opinions obtained

from educators and administrators through their publications was the chief sources of the study.

Summary and Conclusions. Chapter I.—This chapter deals specifically with information regarding various schools used for classification and comparisons. The schools were classified into three groups according to enrollment. Forty schools in Group I, enrollment not exceeding 500—29%; fifty-one schools in Group II, enrollment not exceeding 1200 and over 500—38%; and forty-five schools in Group III, enrolling over 1200—33%. The following percentages of the schools employed one or more full time office clerks: Group I—95%; Group II—96%; and Group III—100%. Of the 135 schools considered 88% employed full time office help; 4% part time help; and 9% no answer. Office help was considered as it might have some influence on the number of duties delegated. Of the principals of the various groups teaching one or more classes daily, 84% were in Group I, 22% in Group II, and 7% in Group III, or an average of 33% taught one or more classes daily. The ratio of men to women teachers for all groups was: women 1.7 to 1 for men. By groups, Group I, 2.3 to 1; Group II, 2 to 1; Group III, 1.6 to 1. Women teachers being in excess in each case.

Chapter II. Herein the teaching load of faculty committees is discussed. Of the 123 schools replying in all three groups 86 or 70% had standing faculty committees. The results of the survey show a decided tendency to have such committees, with an increasing number in the larger high schools. Of all the schools studied the median maximum committee load is three committee memberships. The load being heaviest in the largest schools and lightest in the median schools or schools of group II. In group II, the median minimum committee load is zero while in groups 1, 2, and 3 it is 1. Considering all the teachers and all the committee memberships the average for one teacher is approximately one committee appointment. It is the general practice of 60% of the schools surveyed, to place teachers on standing committees only after they have had one year of experience. This practice seems to be greatest in the schools of group I and least in group II. Most of the schools are making use of the faculty committee as a means of cooperation in administrative duties. The burden is not becoming a heavy one for the teacher in a majority of the schools.

Chapter III. Committees of the Faculties.

The most common types of organization through which faculty participation in administrative duties are: the teacher council, the departmental, the staff, and the committee. However, the purpose of this chapter is to discover the facts as they exist in the schools making use of faculty committees. In all schools surveyed, 601 standing committees were named, with approximately 400 different titles. In most schools committee membership is secured by the principal appointing the members or by election. Of the 17 committees occurring most frequently, women out classed the men in membership in 14 cases. Final authority is about equal between committees and principal. A wide range of staff positions on committees is found. Department heads, vice-principals and classroom teachers are the only ones found on all types of committees. As a rule classroom teachers are first in rank as chairmen on various committees with the department-heads coming second. The size of these various committees lack uniformity for all types. The practice of having a committee of one or having a whole faculty to serve as a committee is quite common. The "one member" committee usually consists of a teacher who has the privilege of appointing others when the need arises.

The faculty is rendering an invaluable service to the administrator. One of the most pronounced tendencies revealed is the minor part the principal is taking in committee activities. Although the principal is not considered as an active member of many committees he does take an active part in an advisory capacity. In general the high school principals are making a wide use of the faculty help through various committee activities, but under many and wide-spread practices.

Chapter IV. Administrative and Supervisory Duties.

The previous chapter dealt primarily with faculty committee participation in administrative duties. This chapter deals primarily with the policy of delegating individual assignments and the faculty advisory cabinet. Herein 37 duties are considered as the most common for all types of schools. In group I, 50% delegate less than 10 duties, group II, 16.5 duties and group III, 22.5 duties, with a median for all groups of 16.6 duties. Of the 37 duties delegated, the following rank highest, with the percentage of rank and the percentage of final authority for each:

Showing Duties Which Rank Highest That are Delegated

to Faculty committees.

TABLE 1

Committee Duties	Percent	Final Authority
Supervise student publications.....	80. %	41. %
Charge of attendance.....	71.	38.
Supervise intra-mural sports.....	69.	34.
Assist in pupil program making.....	63.	24.
Charge of extra-curricular finance.....	63.	23.
Supervise extra-curricular activities.....	63.	28.
Supervise home-room and study halls.....	61.	27.
Charge of pupil records.....	58.	
Selection of text books.....	58.	
Inventory of supplies and equipment.....	54.	22.
Care of school books and supplies.....	54.	24.
Direct students in and about the building.....	53.	
Register, classify and assign pupils.....	51.	
Charge of pupil guidance.....	51.	
Direct entertainment and exhibits.....	51.	22.

Only those duties appearing 50% or more of the time are considered above. Authority not delegated to the committees is assumed by the principal. Of the total of the 37 duties mentioned in the 123 schools, the principal is given very close to unanimous authority. Of the total of 1926 times the 37 duties were delegated in the 123 schools, the principal had final authority in all but 48. The staff position to which most duties are delegated are in order of prominence: class-room teacher, vice-principal, department head, secretary and clerks, janitor, athletic director, and committees. The same survey shows that the ratio of delegating authority to that of delegating duties is 1 to 2.5.

Chapter V. Practice and Opinions.

The aim of this chapter is to learn the practices and opinions of the men who are responsible for delegating duties. This was accomplished through the following eight questions with the trend of opinions.

1. Should secondary school teachers be expected to participate in the administration of the school?

	Yes	No	Undecided	No Reply
Group I.....	30	1	0	9
Group II.....	41	3	0	7
Group III.....	34	4	0	7

2. Are your teachers given a voice in determining the school policies?

	Yes	No	Undecided	No Reply
Group I.....	32	1	1	1
Group II.....	42	2	3	4
Group III.....	38	1	0	6

A total of 94% answered yes to this question.

3. Should high school teachers have a special training for administrative work?

A total of the groups answered yes in 65% of the cases. The positive answer being 18, 28, and 27, in each of groups I, II, and III. "General training" seemed to be the greatest in demand, being elected 48 out of 91 times; educational and vocational guidance 17 times; extra-curricular activities 10 times; and curricular and classroom administration 8 times each.

4. What plan do you follow in assigning administrative duties?

Out of 110 answers: aptitude 41 times, interest 31, merit 11, experience 5, ability to carry out the assigned tasks 21.

5. Are all high school teachers expected to sponsor some form of extra-curricular activity? Thirty-eight per cent of the 123 schools answered yes, 62% no.

6. Should all teachers be expected to sponsor extra-curricular activities? Yes, 34% of the answers; and no, in 64%. (No. of cases 123).

7. Do you have a faculty advisory council? Yes, 34%; and no, in 66% of the cases. (No. of cases 123).

8. State your opinion regarding the usefulness of the council. Forty-one councils are in use in the 123 schools studied.

Indispensable, 14; Invaluable, 8; Essential, 8; Useful, 12; Fools judgment, 5; Highly successful, 7.

5. Metzger, Dalton B. *Report Cards to Parents*. August, 1928. Pp. 98.

Problem. There are at least three problems connected with report cards to parents, (1) What items now appear on these report cards? (2) What items should appear on such cards? (3) What items should appear uniformly upon all such cards? The last phase of this thesis is the one that really states the problem which has been given the most consideration.

Very little historical material is available on the subject of report cards and there is not much work being done in this field now. Most of the research has been in regard to permanent records, rather than in this phase—the report card.

Sources of Data. The literature on the subject was confined rather closely to articles in current educational magazines. The questionnaires used were answered by superintendents, principals, and other administrators from county, ex-

empted village, parochial, private and city high schools. The judgments of six members of the faculty of the College of Education and six graduate students in School Administration at Ohio State University also were used.

Technique of the Study. This study followed very closely the normative method. The results were derived from the questionnaires, and personal judgments of men active in this field or whose opinions were the result of careful study. First, requests were sent to all administrators of high schools with an enrollment of more than 75 students. Second, follow up letters were sent to all those who had not answered the first letter. Third, questionnaires were sent to those superintendents who were using cards which had been classed as II, III, IV and V, and to those who were using Class I if they seemed interested. Fourth, a committee of judges consisting of six members of the faculty of the College of Education and six graduate students in School Administration of Ohio State University evaluated the items returned in the questionnaires. Of the 640 items returned in the questionnaires, 260 were scored by the judges, each of these had been found occurring ten or more times. The judges scored: (1) absolutely essential; (2) important but not essential; (3) never should be placed on a card. If half of the judges marked the item it was placed on the card.

Findings and Conclusions. The report cards that were returned were classed under five heads:

1. The old fashioned scholarship type.
2. Those including scholarship and attitude toward work, and citizenship.
3. A card of composite individual cards where every teacher has a chance to express her opinions about the students attitude toward her particular subject.
4. The individual subject card.
5. A card made for each period.

Class I is most widely used. Rural schools use more of Class II. City and Exempted village schools use most Class IV, and Class V is used to a great extent by Private and Parochial schools.

There were thirty-seven methods of marking used. Of these marking systems, 47% use a five point marking scale, and 72% of these use A, B, C, D for passing marks and E or F denoting failure. Pupils are not, as a rule warned frequently enough when there is danger of failure. Translation of marks

should be only be means of words.

The generally found traits of a social nature are conduct, effort, deportment, citizenship and neatness. Other factors which are a bit confusing are religious education, physical education, weight and height. Attendance is important historically and a majority report places for days present and times tardy. In the clerical data much confusion of terms is noted. Such terms as year and date are used interchangeably. Some items worthy of consideration are parent's signature, name of the high school, date of the card, subjects printed, grade, six weeks space for each subject, home room teacher's name, principal's name, and certificate of promotion. Many schools use slogans on the cards. To be effective they should be changed frequently. Note to parents should be brief. Reasons for failure should be given in a private talk with the pupil and parent and not placed on the report card. Some exceptional forms contain the number of pupils in the class receiving each mark. A comparative card is used which explains the meaning of the marks. Some cards use the point system for extra-curricular activities and citizenship as well as for subjects. Private schools sometimes use the personal letter type.

The importance of the report card is in reporting attendance and scholarship to the parents. It conveys a message of what the pupil is doing in school and brings about cooperation of the parents in stimulating better work from the pupil. It is more vital to the parent and pupil than it is to the teacher or administrator. Special reports convey messages about some problem that needs special attention. It may be a telephone call, personal call or a letter. It is usually concerned with an attendance problem, a low mark problem or a disciplinary problem. Special reports were sent by 67% of the schools when pupils were failing, 37% use telephone calls and the rest do not send reports. When a pupil is low in his work 44% send special reports. Some other factors in special reports are reasons for failure, suggestions for improvement, questions about home environment, absence, deportment, tardiness and appraisal of good qualities of the child.

Duplicate report cards are used by 36% and 56% of these use different colored duplicates. In 60% of these cases the teacher fills out the duplicate card. Of the office records, 53% are cards and the rest are books. Teachers fill out sheets and hand them in at the end of the period in 64% of the cases.

Transfer is done by the teacher in 50% of the cases, by clerks in 39% and by administrators in 11% of the cases. In 92% of the cases the teacher fills out the card.

Some recommendations are:

1. A five point marking system translated in terms of comparative words and according to a scale.
2. That attendance be checked by phone calls at morning and noon or that a special attendance card be given.
3. When an attendance card is used it is recommended that times tardy and days absent be recorded there.
4. Certificates of promotion are not advised in high schools where promotion is by subject.
5. If the office force is large, transfer sheets are advised. Teachers should transfer their own grades on the report cards and permanent record cards in order to avoid making mistakes.
6. That the card be so arranged that the parent reads all the data before he signs the card.
7. The social traits are hard to grade and should be omitted from the cards.

A recommended card has been devised and is shown in the thesis. It is an individual card, for each subject, and there is one for attendance, too. It contains the name of the school, the pupil's name, the home room number, grade, a place for the subject to be written in, and explanation of the marking system, the number out of one hundred students that usually receive a certain mark, a note to the parent about signing and returning the card promptly, the principal's name and the teacher's signature, a place for the grade for each six weeks is found, the semester examination grade, and the semester average.

The attendance card contains the name, grade and home room of the pupil, a note to the parent explaining the method of marking, a place for the record of attendance and the signature of the parent and the home room teacher. A proposed method for handling the clerical work has been given. The clerks place the name of the pupil, grade, subject and home room on the card. Cards are given to teachers, the teacher fills in the grade, signs, gives the grade sheets to the office, and distributes the cards. The following morning the cards are returned to the home room teacher. If there is no clerical help the teachers should be given scheduled periods in which to fill out the cards.

6. Sprouse, Wesley L. *The Administration of the First Day of School in Ohio*. August, 1928, Pp. 71.

Problem. The problem resolves itself into a determination of present practices of administering the first day program in Ohio high schools and comparing these practices with the generally accepted procedures recommended by authorities and used in some of the leading high schools of the country. Two questions are definitely raised in this study: (1) should the first day session be as long as the session for other days in the school year, or should it be shorter? (2) should instruction be given in the various subjects on the first day, or should the time be devoted entirely to matters of routine organization?

Sources of Data. A questionnaire was sent to the principals of two county high schools in each county of Ohio, to the principal of each exempted village high school, and to the principals of 150 city high schools and junior high schools. Personal letters were sent to, and interviews arranged with four leaders in the field of school administration to obtain their opinion on the proper length of the first day of school and whether instruction in subjects should be offered the first day.

Technique of the Study. A total of 370 questionnaires was sent out. Of this number 229 were returned with the questions answered, making the percentage of those returned 62. One hundred county high schools from 69 counties, thirty-two exempted village high schools, and ninety-seven city high and junior high schools were used in this study.

Findings and Conclusions. The practices of the 299 schools considered in this study, are contrary to recommended procedures in regard to the length of the first day of school. Of the total number of schools studied, 58.5 per cent held a short session the first day; those having a session of regular length constituted 41.1 per cent. If the practice of the majority of schools indicated the proper length of the first school day, such a session should be held one-half day or less.

Other reasons for the short session may be noted when one realizes that 20.5 per cent of the schools studied, did not complete registration until the first day of school. Obviously, they could do nothing more with the pupils that day and school was dismissed. This was particularly true in the county schools where 25 per cent of them did not complete registration until the first day of school. Another reason given for the short period is that there were so many conflicts that it took one-half of the first day to straighten them out. It was also claimed

that the nervous strain on the teachers was too great to hold a regular session; that only 54 per cent of the teachers of the school studied and prepared for regular work the first day; and that short sessions were necessary in some schools because they were "customary".

Another of the main questions in this study was: Should instruction be given in the various subjects on the first day, or should the time be devoted entirely to matters of routine organization? Seventy-six and eight-tenths per cent of the schools put their schedules of recitations into operation the first day. Fifty-three of the 299 schools did not use their schedules on this day. All should have tried their schedules on the opening day. Only 51.1 per cent of the schools studied, offered instruction in the various subjects the first day. Of course, this indicated that a majority of schools did class work, but this majority was small. Almost one-half of the schools merely met their classes, nothing more. Where they did meet these classes, the periods were slightly more than one-half the usual length, and only 48 per cent of the teachers really prepared for this first recitation.

We wish to discuss another fact that this study reveals. More than one-half (51.1 per cent) of the teachers in the 299 schools feel that text-books are necessary before class work can be attempted. To us this indicates conclusively that teachers place entirely too much dependence upon text-books. Any teacher should be able to conduct a few classes without the pupils having all of their text-books.

Seventy-six per cent of the schools held teachers' meetings previous to the first day of school. These meetings were called to discuss plans for the opening day. In lieu of these meetings, many principals held individual conferences with teachers or sent mimeographed instructions for the first day to them.

Recommendations.—Practically all of the authorities in the field of school administration and secondary education recommend that the first day of school be one of regular length, i. e., a full day session. Their reasons were that it was business-like, economical, and psychologically the sound thing to do. The principals of 45 per cent of the schools studied, were in agreement with this notion. In view of this it is recommended that the length of the first day of school in Ohio be the same as that of other school days in the year. This will mean that all principals must be on the job a sufficient length of

time before school opens, to have it organized. He should be required to be at his post at least one week in advance of the opening day, and he should receive regular pay for this time. In spite of the fact that a few schools are organized previous to the first day, yet their session is not of regular length. Such schools must cease marking time. We see no reason why almost every school in Ohio cannot complete its registration, make the schedule of recitations, and complete the individual schedules before the opening day. This registration can be started in the spring and concluded the two weeks before the opening of school. This will require careful planning upon the part of the principal, but that is one of his main duties.

Without exception the authorities previously referred to, recommended that instruction be given in the various subjects at the first day session. They felt that this offered a unique opportunity for effective teaching. Every teacher should take advantage of this opportunity to arouse interest in his particular subject.

We do not recommend any one method of instructing teachers in first day procedures as being the best one. We care not which of the methods mentioned is used, just so the teachers are familiar with the organization for the opening day. We are not anxious for the teachers to arrive so very many days in advance in the community for their work. We expect them to so time their arrival that they will know full well what to do when school assembles the opening day.

Of all the schools studied, 109 held a general assembly the first day. A number of principals held a teachers' meeting on this day, also. As to these activities, we would say that they are worth while and should have a place on the program if they will increase the efficiency of the opening day organization. If not, omit them.

7. Swigart, F. D. *Professionalizing the High School Principals*. August, 1929. Pp. 72.

Problem.

1. Statement of problem—to determine what subjects should be offered to the prospective principal in his year of graduate study and to determine the present status of the professionalization of the high school principals.

2. Limitations on the problem—the study was limited to reports from 65 deans of graduate schools and deans of Colleges of Education selected from the Bureau of Education Bul-

letin No. 40 for 1925-1926 on Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools. Questionnaires were sent to principals in Ohio schools having 20 or more on their teaching staff.

Sources of Data. The data were secured by sending out two questionnaires. (1) One was sent to the deans of Graduate Schools and deans of Colleges of Education. (2) The other questionnaire was sent to 110 high school principals in Ohio.

Technique of Study. The normative method of study was used. The author attempted to find out what the status for 1929 was concerning the professionalization of the high school principal. He employed more than a normative method however, for he compared his results with those obtained in other investigations. This may be a combination of the normative-historical methods.

Findings and Conclusions. A summary was given at the close of each chapter. Upon this basis he presented a general summary at the close of the thesis. The main points of his general summary were:

A. Practices of Universities

1. Universities usually require a prospective principal to take High School Administration, Tests and Measurements, High School Curriculum and High School Supervision.
2. Educational and Vocational Guidance should be given the principal.
3. New courses are—*a.* Use of Achievement Tests in the Improvement of Instruction. *b.* Administrative Management. *c.* Advanced Secondary Education.
4. Such courses as Rural High School Problems of Secondary Education are becoming unpopular.

B. Opinions and Recommendations of University Men.

1. A graduate curriculum which can be suited to an individual student, should be in the university. An adviser should be in each graduate school for high school principals.
2. List the subjects to be taken by the high school principal each semester.
3. Minimum requirements should be set down for the certification of the principal. They are,—*e. g.* 2 years of teaching experience, 21 hours of college work beyond 4 years.

C. Opinions and Recommendations of High School Principals.

1. Lists the subjects which are valuable for the principal—e. g., Administration of Secondary Education, Public School Administration.
2. High School principals believe in rigid requirements for the certification of principals.
3. High School principals desired a special certificate, which would place the requirements identical for both the Junior and Senior High School principals.
4. Principals believe in at least 3 years of successful experience as a teacher before becoming a principal.
5. A renewal of certificate after 4 years should require M. A. degree in education, and three years of successful experience as a principal.

General Recommendations.

1. High School principal should have 4 years of training in college or university and should meet requirements of a teachers' certificate.
2. Prescribed courses in graduate work should be given principals.
3. A course in School Administration would have more practical value than a thesis.
4. Principal should have educational and vocational guidance course.
5. Lists subjects that principal should take in a year of graduate work.
6. Special requirements should be set down for the certification of High School principals—3 years of teaching experience, 24 hours graduate work, first certification for a period of 4 years.
7. Requirements should be the same for the Junior and Senior High School Principals.

The author concludes his thesis by giving suggestions from recent writers on the subject.

8. White, Clyde Wayland. *The Effect of Exemptions from Semester Examinations on the Distribution of School Marks in the Hamilton, Ohio, High School*. August, 1930. Pp. 255.

Problem. The study of this problem is directly concerned with the distribution of marks during the exemption period as compared with the distribution during pre-exemption period and the effects of exemptions from semester examinations on

the distribution of marks. The study covers a period of eight years, from September 1922 to June, 1930, of which the first four year period was without exemptions and the second four year period was with exemptions from semester examinations. The problem is not concerned with the opinion that under the exemption system, the high school students fail to get the training necessary for passing college examinations but upon the effect of exemptions on the distribution of marks. The study also limits itself to the Hamilton High School.

Sources of Data. The data were collected exclusively from the Hamilton High School with an average enrollment of 1032 pupils for the four year pre-exemption period, and an average enrollment of 1334 pupils for the four year exemption period. The semester marks were obtained from the school records. All the marks for the first four years were recorded in year books. The marks for the second four years were recorded by the teachers on a class scholarship record card.

Techniques of the Study. The distribution of marks is investigated in three ways: (1) all marks by semesters, (2) all marks by subjects, and (3) the marks of teachers who taught in this school during both periods. In each case, the distribution of the marks for the first semesters of the exemption period is compared with the distribution of the marks for the first semesters of the pre-exemption period. The distribution of marks for the second semesters of both periods was likewise compared.

Findings and Conclusions. The study has revealed that the general distribution of marks in Hamilton High School has been changed very little under the exemption system. The medians show an average increase of 0.04%, which is negligible. The lower quartiles have an average decrease of 0.19%. The upper quartiles have an average increase of 2.38% which is due to exemptions from semester examinations. The average increase of marks above the exemption point of 85% under the exemption system is 8.9%, which is an average of about three pupils per class. This increase is not excessive. The study further reveals that practically all of this increase comes from the class interval immediately below the exemption point.

Many teachers, learning that the study was being made and suspecting that the exemption system may be abolished, have voluntarily sought out the writer and expressed the desire that the system be continued in the school. No teacher ex-

pressed an opinion against it. This indicates that the teachers believe in it. The only part of the general curves of distribution which is affected by the exemptions system is that near the point of exemption.

Four groups of subjects, English, mathematics, social sciences, and commercial, show an average increase of mark above the exemption point below the average increase of the school. Four groups, foreign languages, sciences, vocational and miscellaneous group, show an average increase below the general average of the school. In only two groups, foreign languages and miscellaneous subjects, is the increase excessive. Administrative attention is the solution here. A few teachers need supervision in the giving of exemptions. The results of standard tests given in this school show that the school compares favorably with national norms in the subjects tested.

The average high school of any size has a few teachers who prove to be considerably less rigorous in their standards of marking than the average of the group. Naturally such teachers are less rigorous in giving exemptions. The solution, in such cases, is the responsibility of the principal whose duty it is to give remedial supervision. On the whole, the exemption system in Hamilton High School has not played havoc with the distribution of marks. On the contrary, the standards of the pre-exemption period of the study have been maintained.

PART II. STUDIES DEALING WITH THE STATUS, TRAINING, AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

9. Baker, Homer K. *The Status of the High School Principal in the Exempted Village and Small City School of Ohio*. August, 1931. Pp. 80.

Problem. It was the aim of this study to reveal in an impartial, systematic, and objective manner the excellencies and deficiencies of the high school principals in the exempted village and small city schools of Ohio. Emphasis was placed upon the mythical median principal. The city schools included in this study were those whose population range is between 5,000 and 15,000.

Source of Data. During the school year of 1930-31, questionnaires were mailed to the principals of 55 exempted village and 47 small city high schools. Complete returns were received

from 60 per cent of the former group and 68 per cent of the latter.

Technique of the Study. After the data collected from these principals had been tabulated on frequency tables, in 25 percentile, median, and 75 percentile were statistically figured and recorded. These three measures together with the maximum and minimum in each case are shown in the study. The tables were so constructed that a comparison is possible between the following types of secondary schools: exempted village four-year and six-year, small city four-year and six-year, all the exempted village, and all the small city.

Findings and Conclusions. The position of high school principal in the schools included in this study is somewhat stable. The median exempted village principal has served in his present position for 4.1 years while the median small city principal has been in his present position for 4 years. Since the city principals report a larger school enrollment, there doesn't seem to be any significant relationship between the size of the school supervised by the principal and his tenure.

The findings of this study give evidence that the high school principals in the exempted village and small city schools of Ohio are rather progressive. The median exempted village principal has had 4.9 years of training beyond the high school, while the median small city principal has had 5.2 years of training beyond the secondary school level of the same kind of training. Since, in this study, the small city school principal has had only approximately one-third of one year of college training beyond that of the exempted village principal, there doesn't seem to be any significant relationship between the size of the school supervised by the principal and the amount of his college training.

The median exempted village principal has had 9.8 years of educational experience while the small city principal has had 12.7 years of the same kind of experience. Forty-five and four-tenths per cent of the exempted village and 40.7 per cent of the small city principals were promoted to their present principalship from a teaching position within the same school. The median exempted village principal had .8 of one year's administrative experience before assuming his present position while the small city principal had 1.8 years of such experience.

The median exempted village high school principal is a married man 34.5 years of age. He is employed for one year at

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an annual salary of \$2562.50. He is not working on a salary schedule so he must dicker with the board of education concerning next years pay. This high school administrator reads regularly two or three current school magazines. Among his favorites are the Ohio Schools and the Journal of the National Education Association. This mythical principal cooperates with the existing educational organizations, especially the sectional, state, and national teachers' associations. He supports the Church, Sunday School, and probably a fraternal organization and a service club in his home community.

The median small city administrator is a married man 36.7 years of age. He, too, is employed on only a one year contract, but at an annual salary of \$2950. He is not working on a salary schedule so he, like the exempted village principal, must barter with the board of education concerning a raise in salary for next year. The type of school supervised does not seem to make any appreciable difference in the number or kinds of professional magazines read or in the types of professional and social organizations supported by the high school principals.

Eighty-one and eight-tenths per cent of the exempted village and 68.7 per cent of the small city high school principals have private offices where conferences may be held. Thirty and three-tenths per cent of the exempted village and 40.7 per cent of the small city principals have assistant principals. The three major duties performed by these assistants are: to act as dean of girls, to do clerical work, and to handle attendance. Forty-eight and five-tenths per cent of the exempted village and 56.3 per cent of the small city principals have hired clerical assistants. Forty-two and three-tenths per cent of the exempted village and 34.4 per cent of the small city principals feel as though the help provided them is inadequate to meet the demanding needs.

The median exempted village principal spends 8.3 hours at school each day exclusive of lunch time. This is not the whole story, however, for he is also occupied on an average of 1.7 hours each evening on duties pertaining to the school. This total of ten hours per day is exactly the same as is reported by the median small city principal. The latter indicates, however, that he spends 8.6 hours of his day at school and 1.4 hours each evening in school work. The study indicates that the principals in the small schools spend more of their time in teaching and clerical work and less in supervision and administration and organization than do those principals in the large schools.

The majority of the schools included in this study practice the dual type of responsibility in the supervision of instruction, that is the supervision is carried on by both the superintendent and principal. The median exempted village principal reports that, on an average, he visits each class for 31.4 minutes on 5.6 different occasions each year. It is interesting to note that the median small city principal visits each class more often but for a shorter period each time. To be exact he visits each class for 23.3 minutes on 6.3 different occasions during the term. The greater percentage of the principals in all classifications have been lax in keeping class-room visit records and in interviewing the teacher after such occasions. No doubt the reason for this lies in the fact that only 27.3 per cent of the exempted village and 12.5 per cent of the city superintendents definitely use such reports. Forty-eight and five-tenths per cent of the exempted village principals have no definite schedule for holding teachers' meetings. Only 31.3 per cent of the small city principals follow a definite schedule in holding teachers' meetings. Monday after school for one hour seems to be the favored time and length of holding such meetings irrespective of the size or type of school.

The study indicates that the common administrative relationships between the high school principal and the superintendent of schools are divided as follows: the superintendent usually consults with the principal concerning the selection and assignment of high school teachers; the principal assumes full responsibility for making the schedule of recitations; he may make any rule for the government of the high school so long as it does not conflict with the board of education or superintendent's policy; he is responsible for the proper supervision of athletics, extra-curricular activities, and high school discipline; he has very little to say concerning the work of the janitor in the high school building or in the selection of text books and educational supplies.

In summing up the apparent strengths and weaknesses of the status of the principals included in this study we have the following:

Weaknesses

1. Insufficient administrative experience before assuming the principalship of a school of this size.
2. No scientific basis used for determining salary.
3. Inadequacy of clerical assistance.

4. Improper supervisory technique.
5. A few faulty relationships between the superintendent and the principal.

Strengths

1. Position seems to be somewhat stable.
2. A desire shown for professional growth and advancement.
3. Support given to professional and social organizations.
4. Democratic trends in the administrative relationships between the high school principal and the superintendent of schools.

10. Bascom, Arthur Lyman. *The Relative Duties and Responsibilities of the Superintendents and High School Principals of the Rural Schools*. August, 1929. Pp. 78.

Problem. This problem is one of personnel regulation which attempts to define and delegate the functions of administration in their proper relationships to both the principal and superintendent in rural Ohio schools.

Sources of Data. It was found that no clear definition of this relationship has been made by legislative acts, state department, local boards, or educational literature. The studies made prior were concerned with the duties either of one or the other of the administrative officers without the idea of coordination. Hence for data it was necessary to go to the men concerned to find out just what their respective duties and responsibilities were and what they believed these should be.

Technique of the Study. Officials representing eighty rural districts in eleven counties of Ohio reported by means of a questionnaire on the performance of twenty-five local duties which educational authorities agreed were the most usual and important. Allowance in checking the twenty-five duties was made to permit an indication as to who actually performed them, whether there was evidence of overlapping of responsibility or lack of responsibility. This data was then tabulated to determine common practices.

Findings and Conclusions. The first specific finding from the tabulation brings clearly to mind the wide diversity of practice in the performance of the various duties listed. In no case was it found that the principal selected and recommended text books. All other duties were performed by all the agencies save three duties which were not performed by agents other than the principal or superintendent. In determining the

actual distribution of total responsibility for all duties it was noted that both reporting groups reported the superintendent as having the larger share of responsibility while the amount claimed by the principals is greater than that conceded to them by the superintendents. A pleasing feature of this particular phase is the close agreement between the reports of the superintendents with those of the principals regarding the amount of responsibility exercised jointly.

By dividing the replies into two groups—enrollment above 400 and enrollment below 400 pupils—a comparison between the situation existing in the small schools and the large schools was made with the result that the principal was found to have an increased participation in the function of administration in the larger schools. In attempting to find out the extent to which the different groups of officials claim to know their responsibilities, the 75% of the superintendents of both groups claimed to know their responsibilities, yet the median agreement between the two sets of officials was but 52%. These facts would seem to indicate the general lack of any clear conception of the relative status and province of the local school officials. A very significant finding was revealed by the fact that twenty-three of the duties have occasioned difficulty through a misunderstanding of responsibilities. Those officials who reported no difficulties agreed no more closely as to what their actual responsibilities were than those who admitted having difficulties. It would seem that there is an unestimated source of waste.

A diagram showing the actual duties as reported by each official as compared to the theoretical distribution set-up by reporting officials shows that the majority favor an extension of the province of the high school principal except in the formulation of aims, determination of the type of organization, the selection, transfer and dismissal of teachers, and the formulation of the curricula. The diagram further shows that formation of aims, constructions of curricula, supervision of publicity, and the selection and recommendation of text-books should be performed jointly, while the planning of recitation schedules should be the duty of the principal alone. However, even if the principal were given the responsibilities which the theoretical distribution indicates he should have, he would not have sufficient time to devote to it in view of his present teaching load.

The study brings to light an unwarranted complacency with existing conditions in that high percentages of both officials feel that the duties are now handled by the proper agencies, yet failed to agree upon what that agency constituted. This study shows definitely a lack of understanding among local school men which we have come to believe as a necessary basis for harmony and efficiency. The author does not propose remedial measures because he realizes that each local school is a situation in itself, but he does attempt to discover the nature and causes of weaknesses in the present set-up. The study is valuable because it brings to light a real need for a clarification of the territory of rural school officials and offers a basis for solving the problem for each local school.

11. Bohn, Julius Edward. *The Status of the Coach of High School Athletics in Ohio*. March, 1926. Pp. 101.

Problem. This study is limited to the collection and summarization of data relative to men who are employed incidentally, partly, or wholly as coaches of athletics in first grade high schools which were members of the Ohio Athletic Association on March 1, 1926. No attempt has been made to solve any problem.

Sources of Data. During March, 1926, a letter was sent to all first grade high schools which were members of the Ohio High School Athletic Association as of March 1, 1926. A mailing list was made up from Bulletin Number 5, February 1, 1926 of the Ohio Athletic Association, and from the Educational Directory issued by the State of Ohio, Department of Education, for the school year of 1925-1926.

Technique of the Study. Three forms of the questionnaire were sent to the larger schools as those often have more than one man to do the coaching. Questionnaires were sent to a total of 788 schools. Of this number, 497, or slightly more than 63 per cent, made returns for 513 coaches. The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine how much provision is made for the proper conduct of competitive athletics.

Findings and Conclusions. Because the coach of athletics comes into such close contact with boys on the athletic field and in the gymnasium in a type of school work which offers splendid opportunities for the development of character, he should be a man of strong personality, irreproachable moral character, technical and professional training, and a high sense of justice and fair play. The median, \$2180, and the mean, \$2270,

salaries of the coaches of Group I (city high schools) are fairly attractive salaries. There is a rapid decline in these salaries in each succeeding group.

The median salaries of the high school principals are distinctly greater than the median salaries of the coaches. In Group III (county high schools with more than 100 enrollment) the median salary of the principals is \$36.88 greater than the median salary of the principal-coaches. In Group IV (county high schools with less than 100 enrollment) the median salary of the principals is \$23.23 less than the median salary of the coaches.

The median salaries of the coaches are considerably higher than the median salaries of the teachers in Groups I and II. In Group III the difference is not so marked, while in Group IV it is practically negligible. The salaries of the principal-coaches of Groups III and IV are appreciably higher than the salaries of the coaches, but they are practically the same as the salaries of the principals. The salary ranges reveal that some very low salaries are being paid to coaches, principals, and teachers in all groups. More training, both professional and special, should be secured by coaches. Twenty-six and eight-tenths per cent with no college degrees is a high percentage. The coach cannot have a status which is really professional until he secures more training.

Less than 50 per cent of the coaches of all groups have special training in the coaching of football, basket-ball, baseball, track and field. It must be assumed that those who do not have such special training are using in coaching the knowledge gained from participation in the various sports in high school, in college, and in the professional field. The number of coaches who have attended summer school in the past six years is encouraging. Summer school attendance by coaches as evidenced by enrollment in coaching schools, is undoubtedly on the up-grade. Two hundred and sixty-nine or 52.5 per cent of the coaches hold life or four-year provisional certificates. Such certification denotes a permanent interest in the general field of education. This number must, however, be increased to secure for the coach a more professional status.

Coaches are selected chiefly by the following six agents or agencies: (1) board of education, (2) superintendent, (3) board of education and superintendent, (4) board of education and superintendent and principal, (5) principal and superintendent, (6) principal.

School administrators rank the following as the six best

bases on which to select a coach: (1) character; (2) personality; (3) good habits; (4) his concept of athletics; (5) sportsmanship, and (6) intellectual ability.

The number of coaches holding present position for the first time was 238, or 49.5 per cent. This is an exceedingly large turnover. According to the averages for the number of years spent in present position, coaches do not stay in one position long enough to become thoroughly acquainted with the school and community. One hundred twenty-eight of the 513 coaches of this study were coaching for the first time. The median of the years of experience for all coaches is only 3.19 years. The answers to "why coaches leave positions" indicate that a large percentage fail as coach or teacher, or both. Better positions and salaries cause many to leave. The coaching of athletics is at present a young man's game. The median age of all coaches is only 25.7 years.

The teaching and coaching loads of the coaches and principal-coaches of Groups IV and of the coaches of Groups III average slightly more than thirty periods per week, while those of the coaches of Group II and the principal-coaches of Group III average 28.5 periods per week. When it is considered that the number of after-school hours for coaching each sport varies from fifteen to thirty school days per sport per season, the conclusion must be made that the average coaching job is a difficult and busy one in these groups. Since the salaries are not particularly attractive the chances are not great for attracting high class men to the schools of these groups. A coach must be a "jack-of-all-sports" to coach in the average high school of Ohio. Seventy-five and nine-tenths per cent of the coaches reported directed more than two sports during 1925-1926. Basketball technique should be known by every prospective coach since that sport is played in all high schools except four of the 445 reported. A considerable number of the coaches are burdened with girls' sports which should be placed under the direction of women coaches as soon as trained ones can be secured.

The greatest deficiency of the present supply of coaches is special training. The duties of the coach should be largely advisory. He should give abundant time to personal conferences with his pupils. His chief purpose should be to reach the greatest number possible for the development of character, initiative, cooperation, and leadership. Such administrative duties will tend to keep him interested in the professional side of his position.

Recommendations. Wherever possible make his position "director of athletics and physical education." Develop the finest kind of cooperation between the coach and the administrator to whom he is responsible. Administrators should encourage salary for the coach consistent with the importance of the service which he renders to the school and the community. Administrators should encourage prospective coaches and coaches already in the field to secure the proper kind and amount of professional and special training. The reading of literature for coaches and the study of the methods of successful coaches should also be encouraged. Training schools for coaches and teacher coaches should take into account the traits demanded in a coach by school administrators and turn out men better prepared to meet the demand.

Since the coach should primarily be a teacher it is recommended that he have the same professional qualifications demanded of other teachers. The organization of a state association of coaches is recommended. This association should be given a place in the program of the Ohio State Teachers' Association, and in the program of the annual Spring Educational Conference of the Ohio State University. At these meetings programs of vital interest to the coach in the field should be presented. Administrators should make it possible for coaches to attend these meetings.

12. Cotterman, Homer Ray. *A Study of the Relation Between Training, Experience, and Salaries of the Rural High School Teachers of Ohio*. March, 1926. Pp. 89.

Problem. "The kernel of the whole investigation," says the author, "is an attempt to answer the question: For what are teachers paid?" He is attempting to show the relationships between teachers' training and experience, and their correlation with each other and with salaries, in the rural high schools of Ohio. The study was limited by the fact that nearly three hundred superintendents or teachers failed in making out their reports of the high school principal to the state department of education, from which the data were gathered, to give full and complete information regarding training, experience and salary.

Sources of Data. The sole source of the data used in this study was the report of the high school principal to the state department of education for 1925. Every superintendent and teacher in the rural high schools of Ohio who filled out this

report properly is included in the study. Within the range of these data are 818 first grade high schools (rural), 168 second grade high schools, and 89 third grade high schools.

Technique of the Study. Inasmuch as this study seeks to present a statement of the present condition of things as brought out by the principals' reports to the state department, and draws conclusions from them, it is apparent that the technique is normative. In a section entitled "Sidelight No. 1" a description in detail is given of the method used in the tabulation of data. A large sheet was prepared upon which all pertinent facts could be jotted down in a keyed form. Averages and medians were then computed from the tables, standard deviations derived, and correlation charts made. The study was divided into two parts: Part I dealing with the training, experience and salaries of rural superintendents, and Part II treating the same topics as concerns the teachers.

Findings and Conclusions: Part I

Out of 4153 rural high school workers in Ohio surveyed in this study it was found that 2075 were women teachers, 1200 men teachers, 788 superintendents, and 90 Smith-Hughes men. The typical rural high school faculty consists of a superintendent, 1.5 men teachers, and 2.5 women teachers.

The outstanding facts regarding the rural high school superintendents were as follows: over 80 per cent of them are graduates of a standard college; and 13.4 per cent are undergraduates. Thirteen per cent of them have the master's degree while 74 per cent hold the bachelor's degree. Their experience is much greater than that of the teachers, 10.3 years as compared with 2.9 years, but there is very little difference in the medians for training, 3.9 years for the former and 3.6 for the latter. The median salary of rural superintendents was found to be \$2050.

The medians, deviations, and coefficients of correlation as calculated for the rural superintendents are as follows:

- | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------|------------|
| (1) | The median training is..... | 3.9 years |
| (2) | The median experience is..... | 10.3 years |
| (3) | The median salary is..... | \$2050 |
| (4) | The standard deviation for training is..... | .79 years |
| (5) | The standard deviation for experience is..... | .5 years |
| (6) | The standard deviation for salary is..... | \$440 |
| | The coefficient of correlation between | |
| (7) | Training and salary is..... | plus .208 |

- (8) Experience and salary is.....plus .204
 (9) Training and experience is.....minus .121

Findings and Conclusions: Part II

There were found to be 3365 rural high school teachers in Ohio. This group includes the heads of the second and third grade high schools. The ratio of women teachers to men teachers is five to three. The women teachers were better trained than the men, only 19.5 per cent of the former being undergraduates, whereas 26.7 per cent of the men were not college graduates. Less than two per cent of the regular teachers have master's degrees.

The average experience of rural high school teachers and superintendents in Ohio was found to be 4.48 years. The median experience is 2.69 years. The average experience of women teachers is 3.6 years, and that of the men is 4.4 years. Undergraduates are more experienced than the graduates by 2.73 years.

The salaries of rural high school teachers range from \$1000 to \$2700. The average salary for men teachers is \$1512; for women it is \$1335. Undergraduate women receive an average salary of \$1216, graduates \$1365. Among the men, the undergraduate receives \$1372, while the graduate receives \$1537.

With the aid of the Toops correlation sheets the following medians, deviations and correlations were calculated:

- (1) The median training is.....3.6 years
 (2) The median experience is.....2.9 years
 (3) The median salary is.....\$1348
 (4) The standard deviation for training is......89 years
 (5) The standard deviation for experience is.....5.7 years
 (6) The standard deviation for salary is.....\$240

The coefficient of correlation between.

- (7) Training and Salary is.....plus .269
 (8) Training and experience is.....minus .055
 (9) Experience and Salary is.....plus .202

13. Douthat, Lyell V. *The extent to Which Pupils, in the Large High Schools of West Virginia, are being Taught by Teachers who are Prepared to Teach the Subject* 1929-30. August, 1930. Pp. 87.

Problem. The problem is to discover the training and experience of teachers in large high schools of West Virginia,

and to interpret such findings in terms of costs and pupil instruction. The study is limited to high schools with a staff of eleven or more teachers.

Source of Data. Publications and records from the State Department of Education of West Virginia, principals and teachers of large high schools.

Technique of the Study. Data were collected in the form of a questionnaire sent to principals for distribution to and collection from their teachers, and data in record form from the State Department of Education of West Virginia.

Findings and Conclusions. Questionnaires were sent to 64 schools, 34 or 56 percent of which were returned with the desired information. Seventy-four and five-tenths of the teachers of the above schools returned the questionnaires properly filled out. Such returns came from high schools having from 11 to 55 members on the faculty. Of all individuals returning questionnaires 302 or 60 percent were women teachers and 180 or 35.8 per cent were men teachers and 18 or 4.2 percent were principals, or a total of 500 individuals. This group was teaching 48,283 pupils at the time of the survey.

The teachers of this study had attended 229 schools above high school level. Only 65 of the teachers considered had less than 4 years' training above the high school. The first quartile reached 4.5 school years' training, the median 4.56 school years' training and the third quartile 4.96 school years' training above the high school level. Of the various degrees granted, 264 were B.A. degrees, 73 B.S. degrees and 54 M.A. degrees. Of the 482 teachers considered, only 65 had less than four years' training, and 121 had 5 or more years' training, and 288 had more than four years' training above the high school level. The courses which seemed most valuable in the professional training of these teachers were: psychology, education (unclassified), methods of teaching, practice teaching, educational sociology, principles of teaching and tests and measurements.

As regards the relationship of salary to experience there was a definite positive correlation; being lowest in the case of men teachers .44, next with women teachers .60, and highest in the case of principals, .61. This indicates that with experience an increase in salary usually follows. In considering the experience of the 500 individuals, the lower quartile had less than 1.22 years' of experience, the median being 2.94, and the

upper quartile being 5.88 school years.

Forty-three and four-tenths per cent of all the teachers studied (482) are teaching subjects in which they majored; 13.9 per cent subjects in which they minored; 22.1 percent subjects in which they had seven or more credit hours; and 6.6 percent subjects in which they had less than seven credit hours of college work. The pupils are being taught in 59.6 per cent of the cases by teachers who majored in the subject; 31.8 percent of the cases by teachers who minored in the subject; 5.2 percent of the cases by teachers who had seven or more credit hours of work in the subject; and 3.5 percent of the cases by teachers who had less than seven credit hours of work in the subject.

Of the 482 teachers considered 21.5 percent were teaching in one subject field, 30.7 percent in two subject fields, 21.6 percent in three subject fields, 17.2 percent in four subject fields, 5 percent in five subject fields, 1.9 percent in six subject fields, 1 percent in seven subject fields, .8 percent in eight subject fields, and .2 percent in nine subject fields. The lower quartile in 1.11 subject fields, with a median of 1.93 subject fields, and the third quartile in 3.07 subject fields. Twenty-five percent of the teachers had to make 1.3 preparations per day. Fifty percent of the teachers had to make 2.09 preparations per day. Seventy-five percent of the teachers had to make above 3.09 preparations daily. The average size of classes regardless of preparation or subject taught was twenty-two pupils. Only 14.3 percent of the teachers are engaged in teaching a subject other than a major or minor while 85.7 percent are teaching a major or minor or a combination of these.

Of the 48,283 students receiving instruction, 3.4 percent are receiving instruction from teachers having less than seven semester hours credit in the subject field; 5.2 percent or 2,516 being instructed by teachers having seven or more hours credit in the subject field; 31.8 percent or 15,351 pupils receiving instruction from teachers having a minor in the subject field and 59.6 percent or 28,731 pupils receiving instruction from teachers having a major in the particular subject field.

The average cost per class for all classes, being taught by teachers having more than seven semester hours credit in that subject field is \$349.09, and by teachers with less than seven hours credit in their subject fields being \$261.77 per class, major subject fields \$360.29 and in the minor field

\$343.16. This same cost when translated into terms of per pupil cost is, major subject field \$16.60, minor field \$14.68, with more than seven hours preparation in the subject field \$14.84, and with less than seven hours credit in the subject field \$13.04 per pupil. From this it would seem that the cost per pupil is generally higher when a better trained teacher is doing the teaching.

In view of the preceding study, the author recommends that training institutions include public speaking as a required subject for teachers; that requirements for certification be rigidly lived up to; that boards of education should guard more carefully entrants to the fields of physical education, Latin, fine arts, industrial arts, and mathematics; and that the movement for consolidation for larger units of various high schools be carried on as rapidly as possible.

14. Emswiler, Harold Winfield. *The Junior High School Vice-Principal*. June, 1928. Pp. 51.

Problem. The problem of this study is to ascertain the work of the junior high school vice-principal, both in major and minor functions, as it is related to the educational development of pupils during this critical adolescent period. This study was limited to the *three year junior high* schools of the United States in cities of 100,000 and over.

Source of Data. The material was secured from a questionnaire filled out by 76 vice-principals representing seventy schools in large cities of the United States.

Technique of Study. The normative method was used. The names of the vice-principals were secured by writing to the superintendent of schools of cities of 100,000 population and over. A questionnaire then was sent to the vice-principals and on the basis of this questionnaire conclusions were drawn as to the status and duties of the vice-principal.

Findings and Conclusions. Of the 69 cities of 100,000 or over in the United States, 50 have junior high schools and three others have building programs under way. Within these 50 cities there are 317 junior high schools. Twenty-eight of these 50 cities employ vice-principals. Within these 28 systems there are 170 junior high schools not combined with the senior high school and at least 190 vice-principals.

Reports from 76 vice-principals show that the median number of years that their office has existed is 3. Of the 76 vice-principals, 46 were women, and 30 men. The median

salary for the vice-principal is \$330.00 per month. The median age of the vice-principal is 37 years. The median number of years of teaching and administrative or supervisory work done prior to appointment as vice-principal is eleven. The median number of years the vice-principals have taught in junior high school prior to being promoted to the vice-principalship is two. Median number of years they have served as vice-principal is three.

Seventeen of the 76 vice-principals served as vice-principal in elementary, junior high, or senior high prior to present appointment. Sixty-eight or 89.4 per cent were employed in their present school system and 33 or 43.3 per cent were selected from their present school at the time of appointment to vice-principal. Fifty-four per cent had held no other supervisory or administrative position prior to appointment.

In most cases the principal aids in selecting the vice-principal. Ability and professional training are regarded as outstanding qualifications with years of experience of secondary importance.

The professional training of the men vice-principals is decidedly in advance of that of the women. Baccalaureate degrees are held by 100 per cent of the men and by 60.9 per cent of the women. Masters' degrees are held by 56.6 per cent of the men and by 17.4 per cent of the women. The undergraduate major of 30 per cent of the men was education while only 8.7 per cent of the women majored in the same.

Because of the wide diversities of powers and duties of the vice-principals it is difficult to designate any outstanding tendency. About 50 per cent of them supervise extra-curricular activities; 38.1 per cent teach; 51.3 per cent supervise at least some of the instruction; 58 per cent are consulted by the principal with reference to selection of teachers; 60 per cent help make out the building programs; 31.6 per cent help in program making; 26.3 per cent take care of tardiness; and 18.4 per cent take care of absences with reference to discipline. Twenty-six and three-tenths per cent of the vice-principals interview parents.

The vice-principals were asked to check a list of duties which they felt they should perform. It is significant that attendance, tardiness, and truancy are not given a place of prominence. Teaching, supplying materials, supervision of social activities and supervision of extra-curricular activ-

ities are relegated to the lower half of the list, though a far greater number of the vice-principals find their time occupied with these duties than the number who regard them as their duties in their ideal division of labor. The most outstanding reason given by the vice-principals for inability to perform some of the duties considered most important was lack of clerical help.

Considering the relative short time during which the junior high vice-principalship has existed it may be uncertain just what the vice-principal's status is in regard to promotions. Moreover, the individual cases would have to be studied in order to determine whether or not the new position is a promotion. The fact that 85.9 per cent of the vice-principals are men strongly indicates a tendency for men junior high vice-principals. The opportunities for promotion to junior high principalship would seem more favorable for men vice-principals because 73.3 per cent of the principals are men.

To say what the powers and duties of the vice-principal should be is difficult because of the personnel in different schools. The functions of the vice-principal should be of course those which the principal delegates to him. The really strong principal should not hesitate to delegate some of the foremost functions of the principalship to his vice-principal when he is qualified to perform the work. Too often the powers and duties have been largely clerical. If clerical assistance is needed an efficient clerk would do. Some of the instructional supervision should be done by the vice-principal. Unless a counselor or director is appointed the guidance program should be under the direction of the vice-principal. Pupil contact in the class room is desirable for one or two periods a day. The checking of attendance should be a function of the vice-principal. This function is of vital importance and should not be delegated to one unexperienced.

When the administrative and supervisory force in a junior high school is composed of but two members, a principal and a vice-principal, the situation would seem to demand the presence of both a man and a woman. This conclusion may not be borne out by the situation in practice, but the personnel of the pupils both boys and girls of adolescent age apparently justifies the conclusion.

PART III. STUDIES DEALING WITH GUIDANCE AND
COUNSELLING OF PUPILS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

15. Boda, Harold L. *A County Guidance Bureau for the
Schools of Montgomery County, Ohio.* August, 1930, Pp.
161.

Problem. The problem of this investigation is to determine the need for guidance in the schools of Montgomery County, Ohio; and to set up a plan for a central guidance bureau which would aid guidance in the seventeen schools in the county.

Source of Data. (1) Literature from cities on guidance bureaus and guidance organization; (2) materials from state departments of education, colleges, guidance directors, university professors, visiting teachers on county guidance organization; (3) data collected from superintendents and principals of the county; (4) data collected from pupils of the county; (5) data collected from Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., the chamber of commerce, cooperative high school, mental hygiene clinic, and civic organizations; all of Dayton, Ohio.

Technique of Study. The historical and normative methods were used. A survey of other counties and states was made to determine whether there was any organized county program for guidance. This was done by letter and through a study of guidance literature. A survey was made of the present guidance organization, and the need for guidance in the county, by means of questionnaires sent to principals, superintendents and pupils. Based upon the results of these surveys, and considering the financial and legal status of the guidance program, a suggested plan for the establishing of a guidance bureau in Montgomery County was outlined.

Findings and Conclusions. There has been very little work done in county wide organization of guidance. Although most of the large cities and towns are carrying on some type of guidance program. The only county organization for guidance discovered by the author was that of Craven county, North Carolina. This is being worked out under the direction of the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering. The State Department of Pennsylvania, under direction of Mr. Harold L. Holbrook has started guidance work in 44 counties by beginning with the superintendent of the county. But it seems that no county units for guidance are organized to date. Ohio has a state wide guidance program proposed.

The guidance activities in Montgomery county are very small. There is no organized effort at guidance in any of the schools. There is a decided lack of competent and trained persons to carry on guidance work: there are scattered efforts at scientific educational guidance; a large number of schools are offering occupational courses but few efforts are being made to counsel students on vocational subjects; student clubs are numerous; health programs are limited to athletics and gymnasium classes; cumulative records in most schools contain only scholarship and attendance records and very little else; there is very little contact with homes being made; however, administrators are aware of the needs and willing to cooperate.

"There is a great need for guidance as shown by the following:

1. A study of failures in 7 schools for the year 1929-30 showed that 8.2% of the pupils in these schools were complete failures and 7% were subject failures.
2. In a period of four years there were issued 1036 work certificates in the county. The greatest number were issued to 8th and 9th grade pupils. They go into jobs with little or no advice.
3. Those pupils who are not planning on completing high school are planning on entering some unskilled occupation or have no definite plans for the future.
4. Forty-seven per cent of the pupils plan on attending college. These and the remaining number need guidance as to future opportunities.
5. Sixty-five percent of the 3051 pupils indicated that they had received occupational information from parents. Only 19.5 per cent had received any from teachers.
6. Many problem cases were reported by the superintendents.
7. Twelve and six-tenths percent of pupils in grades 9-12 reported a change from one high school curriculum to another one or more times.
8. Too many of the 3051 girls and boys included in the study choose professions and commercial business occupations. About 45 percent of the girls choose occupations in the professional group and one-fourth of the boys listed professions. Two hundred sixteen different occupations were listed. This calls for counseling and advice.

Two plans are suggested for the county guidance program. The first one is suggested for the present because of financial difficulties which make it necessary to eliminate expense. The second plan is suggested as a final goal toward which the county can work.

Plan number one calls for a central guidance committee composed of 6 members (teachers, principals, or superintendents), appointed by the county superintendent from those in-

interested or qualified in guidance work. Each of these six act as a chairman of the following committees: (1) local research committee; (2) committee on records; (3) committee on extra-curricular activities; (4) placement and follow-up committee; (5) committee on counseling; and (6) committee on testing. Membership in these committees is limited to members of a general committee on guidance composed of 34 members (a principal and teacher from each school) who will discuss guidance as a group under the leadership of the central committee. These committees will work through the classroom teachers and the home room teachers.

Cooperating agencies are the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Dayton Cooperative High School, Dayton Mental Hygiene Clinic, County Health Department, and other local agencies. This plan means little financial outlay, is purely local and will result in uniform cooperation of the teachers of the county. The serious disadvantage is that there is no guidance specialists except in the Dayton Mental Hygiene Clinic.

The second plan, or final goal, takes advantage of the legal possibilities of using assistant county superintendents as specialists in guidance. Under the direction of the county superintendent there would be 5 assistant county superintendents. Their duties are so arranged that each school would have the counselor for one day each week. One assistant superintendent is director of guidance and psychologist in charge of testing. One is in charge of placement and follow-up. There would be counselors, two doing counseling work in six schools, and one in five schools, and possibly teaching occupations classes. These counselors would also make necessary contacts with the home.

Psychiatric service would be secured in the Dayton Mental Clinic. Physical examinations could be taken care of partially by the county health department and by a local school physician. A physician and a nurse could be added to this staff as assistant county superintendents. Teachers meetings and discussion groups would be considered an important part of the program. The aim of the staff would be cooperation of all units in and out of school. The cost of the program would not be great in comparison with the cost of city programs. The salary cost would be about \$15,000 per year. But this is probably beyond the means of most counties at present.

16. Cooperrider, Luke K. *An Analysis of Guidance Plans in Operation in Eleven Large Cities of the United States with a Suggested Plan for a City of Three-Hundred Thousand Population.* August, 1931. Pp. 230.

Within the last twenty years we have seen a rapidly growing interest in the problems of guidance. This interest has been manifested by educators and educational institutions of all ranks throughout the country, by industrial leaders and employers, by business and professional people through their club organizations, by philanthropic organizations, departments of government, homes and individuals.

The type of organization and the method of administration which a director of guidance follows depends upon his philosophy of the function of guidance, his training and experience in the field, his knowledge of various plans of organization, and his acquaintance with local opportunities and needs. The rapid development of guidance programs throughout the country in the last few years reveals the need for exchange of ideas and a comparison of activities. Any guidance program should probably begin where the immediate need is recognized by those in charge, then, move from the known to the unknown, or to other fields of guidance, until from a carefully thought out program the needs of the entire community are met.

It was considered that a knowledge of the detailed plans in operation in the public school systems of various cities throughout the United States would be helpful to those interested in inaugurating a local program of guidance in a city of similar type and size. The plan has been to set up a scheme of survey which would bring together information regarding the best guidance practices in several of the larger cities. The survey, in the main, was constituted of three distinct and consecutive questionnaires. From the primary questionnaire, directed to the State Department of Education in the various states, the names of the school systems were secured which were recognized by the department as doing the most commendable work. A second questionnaire to the Superintendent of Schools in each of these systems, brought data of a general nature in regard to the program of guidance in operation and also the names of certain specific schools in their system in which they considered the best work was being done. A third, larger and more detailed, questionnaire to the principal of

each of these schools gave a bulk of specific information. From these returns the bulk of the thesis was prepared.

A number of the larger cities were selected and described in a uniform manner using the following outline:

- I. History of the guidance movement in (City described).
- II. Organization of the guidance program.
Outline, Scope, Staff, Expenditures, etc.
- III. Research. Testing, Records, etc.
- IV. Instruction. Occupational information, Educational direction, etc.
- V. Counseling.
Counselors, Group, Individual, Home Relations, etc.
- VI. Placement.
Relation with industries, Contacting, etc.
- VII. Follow-up.
Adjustment, Reports, Further training, etc.
- VIII. Summary of Outstanding Features.
- IX. Bibliography.

In the following part of the study there has been developed from approximately the same descriptive outline, what was conceived to be a desirable guidance set up for a public school system in a normal city of 300,000 population or thereabout.

It is interesting to note that there are certain centers or regions in the United States where exceptional emphasis is being placed upon this important phase of education. This is no doubt due to certain guidance spirits in these centers from whom emanates the enthusiasm for and the interest in, as well as the ability to do such work. Among these we find Brewer and Allen of the New England States; Leavitt and Rynearson of Pittsburgh; Eikenberry in Ohio; Holbrook in Pennsylvania; Myers of Michigan; Edgerton of Wisconsin; Cooley at New Orleans, and Proctor of California. In many other and larger regions, little or nothing worth mentioning has been attempted. This is due either to a cloudy vision of the needs and opportunities of a community or else an inability to justify the expenditure sufficient to promote a guidance program. We can only predict and hope for an early awakening to the complete responsibilities attendant with the training and direction of the young.

The history of the guidance movement clearly indicates that private philanthropy was responsible for originating this enterprise. It has been from the beginning, however, closely

associated with the schools, and in recent years has become a regular part of the public school program in many places, as has been indicated previously. The success of a guidance program is governed largely by the type of school organization and the flexibility of the curriculum. Its effectiveness depends greatly upon the advantages the school may offer a pupil to discover his aptitudes and to train for various lines of endeavor. The program is likewise conditioned by the ability of the child to remain in school until he has become as adequately equipped for his chosen work as the school can make him. Although the cities included in this study present wide differences in the degree to which the organization and curricula of the public schools promote or handicap formal guidance activities, it is probably safe to assume that cities with organized programs of guidance, have in other respects made provisions for the welfare of school children, that are superior to the average. Authorities encourage simplicity in organization although it is recognized that this is difficult in the large cities. In spite of this, most of the complex guidance organizations that we have today have grown from simple beginnings. This has been due to:

- a. The slowness exhibited in the recognition of the field.
- b. Unfamiliarity with the methods of procedure, and
- c. Insufficient funds.

As yet there seems to be no amount of unanimity of thought in regard to the best approach to the guidance problem. Some believe that the foundation of guidance is in the home room, some believe the responsibility rests with the earnestly conscientious class room teacher, and others, that it is distinctly an administrative problem. This study would indicate that the best results are being secured where these three elements of the school are closely coordinated in their guidance endeavors. Some believe occupational instruction to be the place for greater emphasis in the guidance program, some pin their faith to the counselor and his activities, while others believe the feature of placement to be the most important phase. Again, it is here declared, that the best results in guidance can be secured only by a close integration of all these phases of the problem. Some give their major attention and interest to the "in-school" group and others to those persons who are out of school. Some give attention to all grades and others to limited grades or groups. The decision here seems to be the result of such local conditions as may definitely modify the

thinking of administrators in their approach to the local guidance problems.

The most widespread, almost universal in big cities, provision for tryout or exploratory experiences that are essential to guidance is probably found in the junior high or intermediate school. It is to be deplored, that in many places this type of organization has been effected seemingly for administrative purposes only and little attempt is made to improve the "pupil school" relationship. It seems obvious from this study, that the junior high school is, if properly adapted and used, the best guidance field that exists in our public school system.

The leadership needed in guidance may be described as democratic. The wise parent who insists that the school shall give his child the experiences which will train him for present or assured future experiences; the understanding teacher who works out for his classroom an improved technique of instruction or guidance; the able administrator who sees educational objectives clearly and sets up a guidance organization which shall help in attaining them—each of these shall in turn lead. Provision for stimulating and capitalizing the creative contributions of all concerned is an absolutely necessary part of leadership in broadly conceived conceptions of guidance.

Enough has been done with guidance to prove that it is dynamic, if it helps us think in terms of real children and life conditions, if it helps us to evaluate present educational practices and discard that which is hampering, or of little worth; and if the work of helping individual children to better all-round living challenges our best efforts, guidance should lead to better schools; to better homes; to better life adjustments; to more satisfactory living.

17. Houpt, L. H. *The Status of Educational Guidance in the Medium Sized High Schools in Ohio*. August, 1930. Pp. 117.

The author chooses from the very extensive and inclusive field of guidance one phase, the status of educational guidance in the medium sized high schools in Ohio. By educational guidance he means "all such school activities as have for their purpose the guidance of pupils in their choice of schools, courses of study, or curricula, as well as all activities connected with the discovery of individual differences and the adjustment of subjects to the needs and abilities of the children." He includes high schools in Ohio,—city, village, and county—with

enrollments between 100 and 500 students. The high school principals, in the main, furnished the data through a five page questionnaire.

While the study gives a brief history of the guidance movement and records plans now in operation in several large cities, yet the technique is primarily normative. The author found it necessary to use 46 tables in order to present the data clearly. He finds that our complex society and our extended curricula make educational guidance a necessity. A further need is implied in his statement, "a trained mind must complement the skilled hand." Only recently has educational guidance emerged from its absorption into vocational guidance. With the functioning of educational guidance as such came the realization that the teacher must know "the ability of the individual and the nature and content of the curriculum." In addition to the above findings which are rather self-evident in themselves, one finds these four conclusions:

1. The unit that has the greatest number of teachers naturally should possess greater possibilities of accomplishment in educational guidance."

2. The teaching program must function to show the abilities of the students.

3. The individual interview must seek out and direct the character, disposition, interest, and habits of the students into constructive activity.

4. Curricular and school organization must give the maximum of choice and initiative with the maximum freedom under guidance.

Regarding point one we find:

	City	Village	County
Median number of teachers.....	16.25	13	8.6
Percent of schools having home-rooms..	65	68	58
Percent having home-room activities....	35	50	39
Percent having organized educational guidance.....	45	50	38

As to point two, the testing program is getting under way as 67.8 percent of the schools are giving standardized tests; 89.4 percent are giving intelligence tests; 83.8 percent, achievement tests; and 30.2 percent prognostic tests. Fifty-five percent of the city schools, 68 per cent of the village schools, and 75 percent of the county schools have found better progress in the elimination of failure since using the tests. This is im-

portant because, heretofore, the mortality before graduation has been; city 25% ; village 33.3% ; and county 22.1%.

The individual interview regarding curricula is followed by 97.8% of the schools. In 96.5% of the schools the principal conducts the interview; in 54.9%, the home-room adviser; in 43.6%, the class-room teacher; and in 40.1%, the class adviser.

Remedial work is offered the failing pupil in 73.9% of the schools. This varies in its nature. A weakness lies in the fact that more schools reach pupils with the interview than with tests; therefore, much of the guidance is by trial and error. Only 17.6% of the schools offer a course in "how to study."

Regarding point four, the author concludes that the home-room, although not so well organized as it should be, offers the greatest opportunity for educational guidance.

Sixty-eight percent of the schools have an organized curricula for the pupils to choose from; 19.7% do not. Seventy-eight percent of the schools permit the pupil to choose his course provided enough choose it to insure the course. A course in occupations is offered in 64% of the schools; and in vocational civics, in 35.2% of the schools.

18. Jeffers, Glenn B. *A Department of Guidance and Research for Preble County, Ohio*. August, 1931. Pp. 202.

Problem. This study assumed a two-fold nature; first, it endeavored to show the definite need for a department of guidance and research in the schools of Preble County, Ohio; and second, it set up a plan of organization to meet the needs for guidance that became more clearly evident as a result of this study.

The study was limited to the upper six grades of the eleven centralized and consolidated schools of Preble County, Ohio. The lower six grades were omitted because of their inability to contribute to the questionnaire which the older pupils were required to fill out. The organizations suggested were based upon those which were already in operation in city and county schools, and as a result of the findings of this study.

Sources of Data. The data for this study were secured mainly from the results of two questionnaires. One questionnaire was filled in by the eleven local school superintendents in the county, and the other was filled in by 1,498 boys and girls in grades seven to twelve inclusive, in the schools of the county.

Guidance organizations and programs were studied in cities, in states, and particularly in rural counties, where such

material was available. Mr. C. R. Coblentz, the county superintendent of schools, made available any necessary records or information through his office. The local superintendents aided not only through the questionnaire, but also through personal interviews. Books, magazines, and reports of various agencies were studied for further information.

Technique of the Study. This study has been largely of a descriptive nature, in that it has shown the need for guidance in the county schools, the status of guidance, and the factors that might aid or hinder a guidance department. In view of these factors, and as a result of the study of existing guidance organizations, two plans of organization were outlined. One plan was very comprehensive, and called for an enlarged personnel, while the other was based on the present facilities of the county school system.

Findings and Conclusions. The need for guidance in public schools was shown by the following: (1) the evidence from the large amount of pupil elimination; (2) the selectivity of our secondary school population; (3) the lowering of the level of intelligence of the secondary school population; (4) the large number of pupil failures; (5) the maladjustments in colleges and universities; (6) the increase in the amount of general education demanded; (7) the enlarged curricular offerings; (8) the types of work into which those who leave school early usually enter; (9) the overcrowding of certain occupations; (10) the multiplicity of occupations; (11) the rapid changes in the industrial world; (12) the changed conditions in the home; and (13) the large amount of juvenile delinquency.

The special need for guidance in the rural schools is shown by the following: (1) the need for instructional materials adapted to rural pupils; (2) the problems faced by the pupil in transferring to a larger school; (3) the need of the pupils for information concerning further study; (4) the heavy demands upon the pupils because of seasonal work; (5) the need for an enriched and an enlarged curriculum; (6) the wide variety of occupational preferences expressed by the pupils; (7) the large number of ways in which boys had earned; (8) the problem of going to the city to work; (9) the over-optimism concerning city occupations; and (10) the large number of rural high schools.

It was found that very few counties in the United States have definite plans of organization for guidance.

The questionnaire filled in by the eleven local superintendents of the high schools of the county, revealed the fact that although the schools have not been organized for guidance, they have a well established basis for the formulation of a definite program.

The definite needs for a department of guidance and research in the Preble county, Ohio, schools was shown by the following: (1) a statement to that effect from the county superintendent of schools; (2) the local superintendents expressed a need for the services of an expert in guidance, and they gave examples showing when they could have used such services; (3) the large number of failures in grades and in subjects; (4) the number of work certificates issued; (5) the "blind alley" types of work entered by the boys and girls who do not complete school; (6) the type of work into which the graduates of the past five years have gone; (7) twenty-four and four-tenths per cent of the graduates over the past five years have gone to college; (8) eighty-three pupils expect to withdraw from school before completion of the high school course; (9) the expected occupations after withdrawal from school were largely of the unskilled type; (10) nearly fifty per cent of the pupils indicated they planned to attend college; (11) the varied types of occupations the graduates expect to enter; (12) the many sources from which the pupils receive advice and information concerning the occupations; (13) those outside the school usually gave the advice relative to elective courses; and (14) shorthand, art, French, typing, manual training, and agriculture were the courses designated as being desired by the largest number of pupils, yet they were not able to take these courses because they were not offered in their school.

It was found that the following factors probably would aid in the organization and work of a department of guidance and research: (1) nearness of the various schools to the office of the county superintendent of schools; (2) the county board of education would contribute only \$500.00 at present; it was indicated that they probably would furnish more money as the need became more evident; (3) the attitude of the majority of the local school boards was favorable toward giving some financial help; (4) the county board of education was very favorable toward the organization of such a department; (5) the county superintendent of schools indicated his interest and cooperation; (6) nine local superintendents indicated they

would be willing to cooperate with such a department; (7) the parent-teacher's associations probably would be willing to help after they were shown the value of such a plan; (8) the churches could be depended upon for support; (9) the Rotary Club has been doing some guidance work; (10) the 4-H Clubs are active in the county; (11) the year-around agriculture and home economics courses already are engaged in guidance; (12) the radio could contribute; (13) the Psychological Clinic at Miami University probably would be willing to aid; (14) a guidance course could be made a part of the extension work for the teachers and administrators; (15) the school and village libraries have a large number of books; (16) the State Department of Education has a program outlined that will prove helpful in guidance work.

Although it is evident that the money for a comprehensive plan of organization is not available, a plan was set up having a staff of the following members: a director, a psychiatric-social worker, a doctor, a dentist, a nurse, and an attendance-placement officer. These staff members would work in cooperation with the State Department of Education, the County Superintendent of Schools, the county guidance committee, the local superintendents, principals and teachers. The various social-civic-welfare organizations would be brought into the plan. The members comprising the county guidance committee shall be one representative from each of the twenty separate schools. This large committee would be broken into sub-committees for intensive study of the following topics: educational guidance; vocational guidance; social-moral guidance; leisure guidance; health guidance; and records. The local superintendents are assigned the work of directing the guidance work within their own school. The task of the principals and teachers is that of applying the life career motive in instruction, and the instilling of moral and social thinking and acting. The foundations of all guidance within the school are placed in the home room organization. The work of the home room teacher is that of counseling in all the phases of guidance. The home room teacher should have time during the school day for individual conferences. The estimated cost of this plan is \$12,500.00. This would cost approximately \$3.10 per pupil.

In the suggested plan of organization based on present facilities the county superintendent of schools was designated as the guidance director. The attendance officer, the county

doctor, the county nurse, and the county guidance committee, make up the staff for the work. The members comprising the county guidance committee are the local superintendents and one interested teacher from each school. This committee was assigned the responsibility for determining the general nature of the county program and the laying of plans for carrying out the program. The local superintendents have charge of the guidance activities within their own schools. In addition to the county committee, a local guidance committee composed of all the teachers in the school was suggested. Their work would be that of studying the various phases of guidance as they affect their own school. The purpose of the local committee is to get the teachers interested in, and working toward, a more complete realization of the aims and objectives of the program. The local and county social-civic-welfare organizations were brought into the plan. The county doctor, the county nurse, and the attendance officer would work in cooperation with all the agencies for the purpose of better serving each child. Upon the regular classroom teacher, falls the two-fold responsibility of motivating the pupil into purposeful activity, and that of studying the individual pupil, from the point of view of his interests, abilities, aptitudes, or disabilities, as shown in the particular subject. The home room is the center of all phases of guidance. It was recommended that from ten to twenty minutes at the opening of the day be given to the home room teacher for social and moral guidance.

19. Jordan, Riley R. *Educational Opportunities in Colleges and Universities Outside Ohio Most Largely Attended by Graduates of Ohio High Schools*. August, 1931. Pp. 236.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to discover and present information that could be used in the educational guidance of the high school pupils in Ohio. The educational opportunities in the Ohio Colleges and Universities were presented in Guidance Manual No. 3, Part One, *Opportunities in Ohio Colleges*, Ohio State Department of Education, 1931. Many Ohio high school graduates attend schools outside Ohio, therefore, this study was made to discover the educational opportunities in the colleges and universities outside Ohio most largely attended by graduates of Ohio high schools.

In order to discover which colleges and universities outside Ohio were most largely attended by Ohio high school graduates, a letter was sent to each of the high school principals

of the state asking them to report the names of the colleges and universities to which their graduates had gone in the last five years. Those schools that were reported by fifteen or more principals were included in the study. There were forty-nine colleges and universities in this group.

Source of Data. Each of these forty-nine schools of higher learning was asked to send a 1000 word write-up describing the institution, its offerings, and its unique advantages. They also were asked to send a complete set of bulletins and catalogs from which information could be obtained.

Technique of the Study. Information was gleaned from each school's catalogs. This information was recorded in six tables. The first two tables contain miscellaneous information, the next shows the curricula offered by the various schools, Table 4 lists the different departments with the number of courses offered in each, Table 5 gives the number of students and faculty, and the student-faculty ratio for the years 1923-24, 1925-26, 1927-28, and Table 6 shows the units of high school work required for entrance to the different colleges. In the last part of the manuscript, a comparison is made of the findings in this study with those of Toops and Edgerton in the study of the Ohio colleges.

Findings and Conclusions. The following are some of the more important facts concerning the colleges and universities outside Ohio most largely attended by graduates of Ohio high schools. Forty-two of the forty-nine institutions included in this study are approved by the Association of American Universities. Fifteen of the group are members of the above mentioned association. Sixteen of these schools are on the approved list of the North Central Association, thirteen are accredited by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, and seven are accredited by the Southern Association. Only nine of the forty-nine claim affiliation with any one religious denomination. Men and women are both admitted to classes in twenty-nine of the schools, only men are admitted in thirteen, and seven admit women only.

The semester plan seems to be the favorite of most of this group of colleges and universities. Forty-two use this plan, five use the quarter plan, and one uses the year plan. The other institution did not report. Twelve of the forty-nine colleges have evening classes, eighteen have extension classes,

and thirty-one have summer schools. Thirty-one of this group have fraternities or sororities or both. Forty-five have residence halls for their students. All but four of the colleges state that they have consulting health service, and thirty-seven provide some hospital service.

All but four of the colleges that admit men require them to take physical education or military training. Women are required to take physical education in every school that admits them. Twenty-two per cent of the colleges had less than 50,000 volumes in their libraries. Twenty-four per cent of them had libraries containing more than 400,000 volumes each. The median cost of tuitions and fees was \$300. The median of the low estimates of the expense of a year's attendance at these colleges was \$800; the median of the high estimates was \$1000.

The most common curriculum offered was the Arts and Sciences curriculum. Only three of the schools did not offer it. The next in order were Graduate, Education, Pre-Medical, Commerce and Business Administration, Engineering, Music, Teacher Training, and Law. Fifty-two different curricula are found in these schools. Three colleges offer only one curriculum each, and two offer two curricula each. One of the universities offers forty-three of the fifty-two curricula listed in this study.

All of the colleges offered courses in English, Modern Languages, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and History. The least number of departments offered by any school is seventeen, the greatest number is fifty. The number of courses in any one department ranges as high as 774.

In the study of the comparison of the Ohio colleges and this group of colleges outside Ohio, the following things were discovered. The average library is larger in the colleges outside the state than it is in the average Ohio college. The tuition and the expense of a year's attendance is higher in the average college outside the state than it is in the average Ohio college. The average college outside the state offers more curricula and has a greater number of courses offered in the different departments than the average Ohio college does. The median student enrollment and the median number on the faculty of the colleges outside Ohio is about five times as great as it is in the Ohio colleges. The student-faculty ratios are practically the same in the two groups of schools.

The larger enrollment in the forty-nine colleges and universities outside Ohio that were included in this study probably accounts for the other differences mentioned above.

20. Mozier, Willis Shipman. *A Comparative Study of the Educational and Vocational Plans of Eighth Grade Boys From the Different Types of Schools of Ohio*. August, 1931. Pp. 103.

Problem. By means of a study of the educational and vocational plans of pupils in the different types of schools—the one room, two room, consolidated, village, city and junior high schools it was hoped to compare the degree to which these different schools offered effective educational and vocational guidance.

The social contacts of the children in the cities, attending city schools, and of the children living on the farm, attending rural schools, are very much in contrast. This difference in social background will influence the amount and kind of knowledge pupils have of occupations and their educational requirements. The results of this study show in which types of schools guidance of this kind is most needed by the pupils. This study is limited to eighth grade boys varying in ages from 12 to 18 years.

Source of Data. The State Department of Education of Ohio has for several years published for free distribution an eighth grade achievement test. The returned test blanks are filed by geographical location, the counties of the state being divided into five groups called districts.

This last spring many schools located in sixty-six of the eighty-eight counties used this test. Each pupil taking the test was asked to fill out a 3"x5" card which contained, aside from a place to record the individual test scores, the following questions which were pertinent to this study: pupil's sex, age, address, type of schools attending, educational plans and vocational plans. These cards were filed by districts according to the total test scores from lowest to highest. Every tenth boy's card was taken, making a total of 1289 cards considered in this study.

Findings and Conclusions. At each of the three educational levels—enter the 9th grade, graduate from high school, and enter college—the one room schools have a smaller percent of pupils planning to continue their education than any other type of school.

The junior high schools are the most efficient in reducing the elimination of pupils between the 8th and 9th grades, as only 2.2% do not plan to continue. In the one room schools there are 13.3% of the pupils who do not intend to enter the 9th grade. The village schools have 7.0%, the consolidated schools 5.7%, and the city schools 4.1% of their pupils who have not planned to continue their education beyond the 8th grade. The one room schools, therefore, are the least efficient in helping pupils bridge the gap between the 8th and 9th grades. In fact the one room schools have a larger percent of pupils at each educational level, than any other type of school, who are definitely planning not to continue their education.

The city schools have the highest percent (49.5%) and the one room schools the lowest percent (28.3%) of students planning to enter college. We can say that the pupils in the city schools have a much better understanding of the educational opportunities ahead than do the pupils in the one room schools. Educational guidance, therefore, is needed most by the pupils in the rural schools.

The elimination of pupils between the 8th grade and college is much greater in the retarded group than in either the normal or accelerated groups in all types of schools, and it is greater in the normal than in the accelerated group. The city schools have the lowest percent of accelerated and the highest percent of retarded pupils. The village schools have the highest percent of acceleration with the one room schools next high. The two room schools have the lowest percent of retarded and the highest percent of normal pupils. The elimination of pupils from each type of school will be greater between graduation from high school and entering college than between either of the other educational levels.

The pupils' occupational choices were rated as to the need for a college education. For example, the professions were classified as requiring a college education. In the one room schools only 62% of the pupils electing occupations for which a college education is considered necessary are planning to enter college, while in the city schools, 90% of these pupils plan to enter college. The village schools have 64% and the consolidated schools have 72% of this group intending to go on to college. It is evident that the pupils in the rural schools are more ignorant than the pupils of city and village schools in regard to the educational requirements of occupations. Therefore, the rural pupils are in greater need of information

concerning the education needed to enter certain occupations, than are the city pupils. Further evidence of this need is shown by the fact that 50% of the pupils in the one room schools selecting the following occupations intend to enter college: Bookkeeper, Carpenter, Clerk in a store, Electrician.

From the fact that for every occupation chosen by the pupils in the one room schools there were 5.1 pupils to choose it, as compared to 1.8 pupils per occupation in the city schools, shows that the rural pupils do not have as wide a range in knowledge of different occupations as do the pupils in the city. This is also true of the consolidated schools as compared to the village schools where the number of pupils per occupation is 4.8 for the former and 3.7 for the latter. Further evidence of greater occupational knowledge on the part of city school pupils is shown by the fact that 33% of the occupational choices of these pupils were in occupations which were chosen by one pupil each, while only 11% of the occupational choices of the pupils of the one room schools were in such occupations. The occupation "farming" constitutes 54% of the occupational selections of the pupils of the one room schools and only 4% of those of the city schools. This high percent on the part of the rural pupils may be due in part to propaganda, such as, "Keep the Farm Boy on the Farm".

It is the conviction of the writer, in view of these figures, that in order to uphold our democratic principle of equal opportunity for all, we must create for the rural boy situations in which he can discover his interests, aptitudes and abilities, so that he may choose an occupation in which he will be successful. In the light of this same principle the city schools deserve some criticism, because few cities offer exploratory courses in agriculture.

The occupation "farming" has been rated in this study as a vocation for which a college education is desirable. It evidently is not considered as such in the minds of the pupils for in all types of schools 58% of the pupils not entering the 9th grade elected it, while it was chosen by only 15% of those pupils who intend to enter college. As pupils plan to progress educationally they become more purposeful in regard to the selection of occupations. For these pupils who will not enter the 9th grade, 63.4% selected occupations as compared to 80.3% for those pupils who plan to enter college. Practically all evidence points to the pupils of the rural schools as being

in greater need of educational and vocational guidance than the pupils of the village and city schools.

PART IV. STUDIES DEALING WITH PUPIL ADJUSTMENT AND PROBLEMS OF ARTICULATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

21. Bauer, Lee B. *A Comparative Study of Rural and Town Pupils Entering High School*. August, 1927, Pp. 75.

Problem. The problem of this study is: (1) to determine whether the rural pupils or the town pupils enter high school better equipped, mentally, to do the work required of them; (2) to find out which group comes better prepared academically; (3) to see whether the city or the rural district promotes the faster. That is, does one group attain the ninth grade at an earlier age than the other? Also to see if there is more over-ageness or under-ageness in one group than in the other; (4) to discover which group of pupils accomplishes the more, once they are in high school. The results are to be based on teachers' marks and achievement tests. And also to discover if it is possible for the pupil to have mental and previous preparation handicaps and still measure up to the achievement standards of the more precocious group; (5) to determine which group is the more regular in daily attendance at school, and also, to find out which group, on the average remains in school the greater length of time; and finally (6) to discover which group participates more in extra-curricular activities of the school.

Sources of Data. A list of all previous investigations is listed. This information tends to establish the superiority of the town pupils in mental ability and achievement. The pupils selected for this test were in the two towns of Wadsworth and Medina. The method used in securing this information was taken from pupils who entered the Medina and Wadsworth High School in September of the years 1924-25-26 and January 1927. These pupils were given either form A or B of the Terman Group Test of Mental ability. Special tests in different subjects were also given during these years. The pupils were classed in two groups, town and rural. About one-hundred of each group entered Medina each year and about one-half that number entered Wadsworth. The rural pupils that entered Medina were principally from the small rural schools, while about one-half of the rural children from Wadsworth

were from rural consolidated schools. The results were, nevertheless practically the same.

Technique of the Study and Results. The following results were obtained in regard to the mental ability of both groups covering this period; (1) town pupils were three months superior in mental ability; (2) the rural group had less deviation; (3) the town group had 20.9% of I.Q.'s above 110, and 28% below 90; (4) the rural group had 3.6% of I.Q.'s above 110, and 36% below 90. When compared to Terman's standards the town group was equal or superior while the rural group was inferior; and (5) the median score was 17% above that of the rural.

On preparation the following was found:

1. Charters' Diagnostic Language Test.
 - A. Standard median was 11% over town median.
 - B. Standard median was 33% over rural median.
 - C. Town median was 20% over rural median.
2. Morrison-McCall Spelling Card.

The town spelling was 5% to 8% over the rural.
3. Thorndike-McCall Reading Scale. (Normal 100)
 - A. Town was .8 points below normal.
 - B. Rural was 6.2 points below normal.
 - C. Only two-thirds as many rural as town rate in McCall's superior reading class.
 - D. The town rate an "average" while the rural rate as "low average".

It was found that the town pupils entered school one month earlier than the rural; and that the town pupils in Wadsworth began school at an age six months younger than the rural pupils.

In achievement, a point system was used to simplify checking. (E—4; G—3; F—2; P—1).

The per cent of failures was as follows for the town and rural pupils of Medina and Wadsworth:

	Medina	Wadsworth
Town	6.4	2.5
Rural	7.2	2.7

In algebra both groups were above the average and of equal accomplishments.

The following results were obtained for attendance:

1. Town, 95.6%. Rural, 93.6%.
2. Town pupils had a 2% better attendance.

3. The average town pupil remains in school two to three months longer than the average rural pupil.

4. The greatest loss in the rural pupils was at the end of the ninth grade.

The town pupils engaged in 10 to 15 per cent more extra-curricular activities than the rural pupil. It was also found that twenty to twenty-five per cent more town pupils than rural pupils engaged in two or more extra-curricular activities.

Conclusions and Recommendations.

1. Use standardized tests.
 2. Give the rural pupils special training.
 3. Use supervised study instead of the large study hall.
 4. Give more work to the town pupil.
 5. Try to stop dropping of the rural pupils at the end of the ninth grade.
 6. A system of advisers for failures.
 7. A closer check upon rural absentees.
 8. Pupils be encouraged to participate in extra-curricular activities.
 9. Average pupils to be encouraged.
 10. Advise pupils in regard to subject selections and courses of study.
 11. Broaden the curriculum.
- Slogan "No failures" in pupils of above average I. Q.

22. Frew, James Edward. *The Articulation of Junior and Senior High Schools in Ohio*. August, 1930. Pp. 106.

Problem. This is a study of the articulation problems and procedures of the junior and senior high schools of Ohio. No school with an enrollment of less than 100 pupils was considered, and the schools of Cincinnati, Columbus and Dayton were not included.

Sources of Data. A three-page questionnaire was sent to 292 schools. Of these, replies were received from 94 six-year high schools, 35 junior high schools and 13 senior high schools, or 51.3 per cent of the total.

Technique of the Study. The general technique of the study should be classed as normative as it sets forth the present status of articulation problems and procedures. The thesis contains 48 tables which show the results of the questionnaire mentioned above. The narrative is a running account explaining and interpreting these tables.

Findings and Conclusions. The findings and conclusions in this study follow the outline of the questionnaire and may be divided into seven main divisions. Only the more important and outstanding items are presented in this abstract.

1. Administrative Procedures and Problems.

It was found that all the principals in the school system meet as a group in 61.2 per cent of the systems reporting. In 85.2 per cent of the reports the junior and senior high schools were administered by the same assistant superintendent or other supervisory officer. The teachers of the junior and senior high schools meet together to discuss common problems in 80.2 per cent of the systems. Monthly meetings are most common. The meetings are held for all the teachers in 76 per cent of the schools, and for certain subjects only in 24 per cent.

2. Programs of Studies—Curriculum Difficulties.

Pupils have difficulty in selecting a curriculum and elective subjects in 66.2 per cent of the schools, and in 63.3 per cent of the schools there is a lack of provision for individual needs. There are schedule conflicts and inability to secure certain subjects on account of small enrollment in 42.9 per cent of the schools.

3. Methods of Instruction.

Pupils are grouped homogeneously in 57.7 per cent of the schools on varying bases, chief among these being previous school record, 58.4 per cent, and intelligence quotient, 44.3 per cent. This matter of homogeneous grouping was an important problem in 54.9 per cent of the schools. Pupils encounter difficulties in senior high school because of different methods of instruction than they were used to in junior high school according to 29.5 per cent of principals reporting.

4. Articulation Problems at the Transition from the Junior High School Level.

The junior high schools pass on to the senior high schools the type of record and information concerning pupils that enable them to assign pupils to proper ability groups and otherwise effectively orient them in 83.8 per cent of the school systems. An attitude of cooperation and sympathy was reported to exist between the teachers of junior and senior high schools in 79.6 per cent of the schools. Teachers of the same subject in junior and senior high schools inter-visit according to 48.6 per cent of the principals. It was found that experiences which pupils have in junior high schools make easier the adjustment

to the life of the senior high school as compared with the conditions obtained under the old 8-4 plan in the opinion of 85.9 per cent of those reporting.

5. Guidance.

Adequately articulated programs of guidance covering junior and senior high schools prevail in 40.1 per cent of the schools. School counselors are reported by 28.1 per cent of the principals. Counseling organization continues through the junior and senior high schools in 30.9 per cent of the systems. Counselors in both junior and senior high schools continue work with a given group of pupils for three years in 28.8 per cent of the systems. Complete records accompany pupils throughout the school system according to reports of 51.4 per cent of the principals.

6. Extra-Curricular Activities.

The junior and senior high schools exchange assembly programs in 53.5 per cent of the schools and meet together for assembly programs in 63.3 per cent of the schools. Interclass athletic events with pupils of junior and senior high schools playing together are held to some extent in 55.6 per cent of the systems.

7. General Problems of Articulation.

The length of junior and senior high school periods is the same in 78.8 per cent of the school systems. A single salary schedule prevails in 62.6 per cent of the schools. Senior high school teachers seem to think largely in terms of school subjects and college preparation rather than in terms of child development in the opinion of 40.8 per cent of the principals reporting.

The study brought to light a number of articulation procedures which are being practiced in Ohio schools. Among these are: (1) vertical supervision with a consistent scheme of organization and administration that carries over from the junior high school to the senior high school; (2) formulation of clear statements of the purpose of junior and senior high schools based upon the needs of the pupils; (3) agreement concerning the bases for homogeneous grouping, and, as far as possible and practicable, provision made for the continuity of such grouping; (4) the general adoption throughout the secondary schools of the study-recitation plan of teaching; (5) similar methods of teaching in various subjects; (6) report blanks and record cards are similar in both junior and senior

high school units so that there may be a continuous record which is understood by all; (7) the junior high school pupils are invited to the senior high school and made acquainted with the building, courses of study, pupils and faculty; (8) pupil organizations and extra-curricular programs in the junior and senior high schools are similar; and (9) teachers are shifted from year to year among the years of the secondary period for their teaching assignments.

23. Heard, Beverly H. *The Problem of Pupil Transfer in the High School of the Teacher-Training Division of Wilberforce University, Ohio*. August, 1931. Pp. 89.

Problem. The aim of the problem is to determine the amount of loss or gain on the part of high school pupils who are transferred from one school to another—as it has reference to (a) the age-grade achievement of the pupils; (b) the preliminary training of the pupils; (c) the adjustment in training at the time of making the transfer; (d) progress after transference; (e) the permanence of school activity or continuance to completion of high school training; (f) school progress as contrasted with that of native pupils; and (g) causes contributing to transference.

Limitations Placed on the Study. The study was limited to an analysis which includes the pupil group administered in the high school of the teacher-training division at Wilberforce University. The limitation in time—investigation and analysis cover a six-year period from 1925-26 to 1930-31 inclusive.

Sources of Data. The sources of data are the cumulative records of the students of the high school over the indicated six-year period, together with the personal history cards (records); university bulletins, and documents in the registrars' or clerks' offices—such as certificates issued by the representatives and senators granting the right of instruction to those with legal residence in Ohio; transcripts and certificates of achievement from the various schools showing the work accredited or not accredited to the pupils; principals' annual reports to state and local officials in Ohio as they refer to schools from which and to which pupils transfer; documents from the State Department of Education, the Ohio Code of Laws, 1929; similar studies made on this or higher school levels; and investigation and literature on pupil adjustment pertinent to this phase of the general problem.

The gross enrollment for the six-year period was one-

thousand-twenty-nine. In the enrollment represented were six-hundred-twenty-four individual students. There were five-hundred-eighty original transfers and forty native pupils. Twenty of the native pupils transferred to other schools which gave exactly six-hundred cases of transference (native pupils are those residing in Wilberforce when enrolling and whose preliminary training was received in the community).

Method of the Study. The method of study was analytical, making use of personal investigation, personal interview, and request from school authorities for desired material. There was correspondence with school officials in Ohio and outside the state where pertinent facts in the investigation demanded it.

Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations.

1. Age-grade achievement in relation to transference:

The normal age range for secondary pupils from fourteen to twenty years is boosted to thirty years and beyond in this study of transferred pupils. The point of central tendency in the ages of transfers is located between seventeen and eighteen years of age.

TABLE I. FREQUENCY TABLE FOR AGE-ON-ENTRANCE OF TRANSFERS

Age on Entrance	Number Transfers	Age on Entrance	Number Transfers
12	3	22	13
13	6	23	8
14	31	24	7
15	54	25	7
16	80	26	2
17	86	27	7
18	114	28	4
19	66	29	2
20	54	30	7
21	26	Above 30	19
Q ₁		15.57	
Med.		17.38	
Q ₃		19.26	

2. The preliminary training of the pupils:

Transferred pupils with the same preliminary training and the same instructional service as native pupils are about thirteen per cent less successful in completing their high school education.

3. Adjustment in training at time of making transference:

The money loss to transfers is of significant importance. Transfers add to the general cost of education. The gain and loss in credit for transfers is so small as to be of little consequence. Transfers are effected with practically no losses or gains in credit. Time loss for transfers is influenced chiefly by financial need and the factor of transportation. Time losses are found in few instances. While it is of weight in the matter of pupil achievement, yet it does not affect noticeably the accomplishment of the transferred group. The transfers are practically evenly distributed between the sexes with the advantage in favor of the boys. The numbers of the transfers vary inversely with the classification of the pupils up to the twelfth grade. At this point there is a big increase which causes the twelfth grade to outnumber all the other grades in transference. The transfers in the two lower grades of the high school are in some cases junior high school graduates. In other cases the transfers are pupils who were maladjusted in the senior high school. The transfers in the two upper grades of the high school are pupils who are seeking to develop their special interests. There are transfers in the upper grades of the high school who are satisfying ambitions for additional training.

TABLE II. TRANSFERS BY GRADE AND SEX FOR SIX-YEAR PERIOD

	Grade				
	9th	10th	11th	12th	Irregular
Boys -----	76	66	50	98	32
Girls -----	65	43	50	94	26
Total -----	141	109	100	192	58

4. Progress after transference:

The dissimilarity in ages, school habits, social makeup, and classroom viewpoints, lowers the school success of the group. Consequently there is promoted discontinuance of school activity.

5. The permanence of school activity or continuance to completion of high school training:

The average time spent in school after transference by those who eventually withdrew is 1.15 years. The average time lacking for completion of the high school course on the part of transfers withdrawing is 2.25 years. The average transfer who later withdraws needs to spend twice as much time as he

actually spends to complete the high school course. The percentages for withdrawals are greater in the ninth and tenth grades for those preliminarily trained in Ohio. The percentages for withdrawals in the eleventh and twelfth grades are greater for those preliminarily trained outside Ohio.

TABLE III. TIME SPENT IN SCHOOLS AFTER TRANSFERENCE OF THOSE WITHDRAWING

	1925 1925	1926 1927	1927 1928	1928 1929	1929 1930	1930 1931	Total
Number of withdrawals ----	70	57	74	33	25	9	268
Aggregate time in years spent in school -----	99.5	47.6	92.5	28.6	29.2	9.0	306.4
Average time in years for each withdrawal ----	1.42	0.83	1.23	0.86	1.12	1.00	1.15

6. School progress as contrasted with that of native pupils:

The transference to Wilberforce has been in part from Ohio, and in part from other states of the United States, and from foreign countries. The transference from Ohio is slightly in excess of that from outside the state.

The number count of transfers according to birthplaces shows that Ohio has only seventy-five per cent of its transfers to Wilberforce, native born. The residence of the other twenty-five per cent on the basis of birthplace is shifted largely to the southern states. Thirty-eight per cent of all the transfers are native born citizens of Ohio. The mortality of transfers is approximately the same as that for native pupils. In round numbers sixty per cent are held in school. Frequency in withdrawals varies inversely as the pupil classification. There is a big loss in educational opportunity on the part of transfers who eventually withdraw.

7. Causes contributing to transference:

The causes contributing to transference are numerous and of vital importance to educational results. These causes are or may be determined by the agencies directly concerned in pupil progress: the parent, the teacher and the pupil. These causes may be listed in two general classes: those of a constructive nature in improving the pupil's education; and those of a non-meritorious sort which are mostly nominal in their worth. The ratio between meritorious and non-meritorious causes given is coincident with the ratio between transfers held in school and

transfer withdrawals. Transference due to non-meritorious causes apply mostly in the two lower grades in the high school, while transfers due to meritorious causes apply in the two upper grades of the high school.

Conclusions. The large mortality among transfers is due to the lack of proper guidance. The sixty per cent transfer survival is due in large measure to family and home guidance. The forty per cent mortality in transfers is due to almost total lack of guidance. The survival and mortality of transfers are nearly identical wherever the preliminary training may have been received.

Transference is a natural phase of school procedure. It is necessary due to the application of the principle of individual differences which governs training on any educational level. The success or failure of transferred pupils is dependent on the efficiency of the instruction, supervision, and the proper appraisal of pupil needs.

Recommendations. That a plan of continuous research be set up in secondary schools that interprets pupil achievement or failure on the basis of pupil interests. That case studies be made of those pupils who are apparently inadequately served by the general organization of the school. That the guidance program include transference in its field of legitimate activity. That a system of accounting for transfer pupils be established on an inter-school basis. That transference be more closely supervised in secondary schools.

24. May, Lonnie L. *The Trend of College Entrance Requirements in the Southern States*. June, 1931. Pp. 80.

Problem. It is the purpose of this study to show, first, the trends of college entrance requirements in the state universities of those states belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. In the second place, an attempt will be made to point out some of the influences responsible for these trends.

Sources of Data. A large part of the literature published on college entrance requirements is purely opinion. The author gives a brief analysis of some reliable work that has been published on the subject. The universities to be studied are Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, and Virginia. The material for this study came from several sources, chief of which

is college catalogues. Reports, proceedings, and publications of various certificating and standarding agencies also were used.

Technique of the Study. The universities of 1884 when compared to those of 1900 differ widely. The course for the Bachelor of Arts degree was by far the most popular during this time. In 1884, with the exception of Texas, entrance to these universities was wholly by examinations conducted at the university. By 1900 a certificate from an accredited high school was accepted by every university.

In 1884 Greek was required for entrance to the classical course. The change for college entrance by 1900 may be given as follows: (1) Greek was not included in the typical college entrance requirement; (2) the quantity of mathematics and English was almost double; (3) Latin remained about the same in rank and importance; (4) German, French, and history were accepted or required for entrance to the more liberal literary courses; and (5) physics and geography were beginning to be recognized in a small number of the universities.

With the development of the public high school and the disappearance of the academy came a movement to relate the public high school more closely to the college. A general improvement in college entrance requirements began with the inauguration of the College Examination Board of 1900. It "invented" the college entrance unit. This unit was accepted by all of the universities before 1910.

The number of institutions setting up two sets of requirements for entrance to the two commonly conferred bachelor's degrees in 1910 was 8 out of 11, while in 1930 only 2 out of 11 made such provisions. This is a significant movement on the part of the colleges to leave to the high school principal the task of selecting studies and preparing students for college. The old method for entrance to college was to prescribe definite subjects with a definite amount of each. The next method was to prescribe a definite amount of language, science, and history, but to permit the choice of the particular language, science or history to be offered.

A recent method is to prescribe still fewer subjects, and to allow a choice of the group or groups from which major or minors are to be presented. A second method of securing flexibility in college entrance requirements is to permit several units to be chosen from a list of acceptable subjects. In 1910 the average number of free elective units was 2.6; in 1920,

6.37; in 1930, 6.81 units. However, a student may enter with a condition. There are two kinds of conditional entrance: the first is the shortage in the number of units which the applicant offers and the second is a lack of specified subjects which the college requires for entrance. In such a case the student must attend a local high school while going to college or remove the condition in the summer.

In 1884, one-hundred per cent of these institutions prescribed a minimum age at which entrance might be gained. The number of institutions which specify a minimum age requirement shows a decrease each decade to the extent that by 1930 less than fifty per cent made any statement concerning age requirements. This is due mainly to the fact that graduation from the high school presupposes sufficient maturity to enable the applicant to do college work.

Findings and Conclusions. Some of the important causes for changes in the curriculum are: (1) an increased number attending high school and college; (2) a higher percentage of attendance on high school and college levels has increased the heterogeneity of those in attendance; (3) as a consequence of these factors of unlike social and racial backgrounds, varying abilities, and diverse needs, desires, and ambitions, there has arisen a growing demand for the reorganization of the curriculum.

The bodies that have been most influential in bringing about changes in college entrance requirements are: The National Education Association; The Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges of the Southern States; The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching; The College Entrance Examination Board of New York; and the General Education Board.

Objective studies are needed to show the comparative values of high school subjects in producing in students an initiative and independence in their work and effective habits of study by which they can proceed to an advanced course. A second problem the solution of which would be a definite contribution to educational procedure is that of determining the ages at which certain materials function best in the production of an educated citizenship. Finally, it is recommended that no institution depend exclusively upon any one form of machinery whether it be in the form of certificates written or psychological examinations, personal recommendations, ratings, or in-

terviews, but to use a combination of most or all of the devices, and perhaps others in addition.

25. Ullman, Roy Roland. *The Relative Abilities of Rural and City High School Graduates to Do College Work*. August, 1926, Pp. 64.

Problem. The conditions under which the pupil in the rural high school works are very different from those of the pupil in the city high school, though both may have obtained high school credits in the same courses. The rural high school as a rule has small classes, fewer teachers, poor buildings, in fact a minimum of everything, while the city high school has fine buildings, good equipment, better trained teachers but larger classes. In view of these conditions this study will be limited to the determination of the comparative abilities of the rural and city high graduates to do college work.

Sources of Data. The study was made of persons graduating only from first grade high schools who entered Ohio University, 538 in number. These individuals came from all over Ohio, but most of them came from high schools in the southern and south-eastern parts of the state. An average was made of their high school record from the record submitted to the college for entrance. The intelligence quotient from the Otis intelligence Test was recorded. Many other facts were obtained about each case, such as sex, age, number of teachers in the high school from which they graduated, and rural, or city high school.

Technique of the Study. The scientific method was used in gathering and handling the data, making use of the formulae as given in Odell's "Educational Statistics" and Otis' "Statistical Method in Educational Measurements."

Findings and Conclusions. The study revealed the fact that more women entered the college of education and more men entered the college of arts. More women came from the rural schools while more men came from the city schools. The first finding would indicate that more of our teachers come from the rural schools. Teachers in rural schools give their pupils higher marks than city teachers. High school records of rural pupils were 2.5 per cent higher than the city pupils while in their college work the rural pupils were one per cent lower. Rural pupils had a lower intelligence quotient on the whole.

The rural pupil does not seem to be handicapped because of his poorer educational opportunities. The study revealed the

fact that the high school record, that is, the average high school mark, is the most valuable single measure for predicting success in doing college work. The study of senior marks showed nothing of value that was not shown by the marks for the entire four years. The study reveals that the students from the medium sized high schools do poorer work than those from the small or large high schools.

PART V. STUDIES DEALING WITH THE SO-CALLED EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

26. Black, Albert Eli. *The Organization and Administration of the Extra Curricular Activities in the City and Exempted Village High Schools of Ohio*. August, 1925, Pp. 69.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to determine how participation in, how the administration of, and how the different kinds of extra curricular activities are developed and regulated in the larger schools of Ohio. The study is limited to all of the city and exempted village high schools in Ohio.

Sources of Data. Applicable references were used in preparing the questionnaire which served as a basis for collecting data used in the study.

Technique of the Study. The normative method of study was used. This thesis was written in 1925 and the author was trying to determine what the actual status of extra curricular activities was at that time.

Findings and Conclusions. The author concludes the body of his thesis with two summaries, Summary A and Summary B. Summary A is limited to the enumeration of the outstanding features concerning his investigation. The most important of the fifteen outstanding features were:

1. Only sixty-two per cent of the cities and sixty-eight per cent of the exempted villages filled out the questionnaire and returned it.
2. More than one-third of high pupils took no part in activities other than those regularly prescribed.
3. Approximately three-fourths of the cities, and three-fifths of the exempted villages sanctioned dancing under school regulations.
4. Fraternities, sororities, and social clubs existed in more than one-fourth of each of the two types of schools under consideration.

5. Student councils are found only in the larger school systems.
6. Lists of activities found in the school systems; requirements for student membership on committees; activities in which largest number of pupils participate; activities found only in cities; and activities found only in exempted villages.

Summary B deals with the conclusions and recommendations. They were given under topic headings of (1) credit for activities; (2) pupil participation; (3) dancing; (4) general committees; (5) fraternities and social clubs; (6) honor point systems; (7) soccer and volley ball; and (8) principles underlying an extra-curricular program. Each of these topics may be summarized in this manner:

1. Since only approximately half the schools give credit toward graduation for extra-curricular activities, they must be justified on the basis of inherent value.
 2. The extra curricular program should be produced to take care of the one-third which participates in no activity except that which is prescribed.
 3. Dancing can be justified on basis of its educational value.
 4. General committees should be used in carrying out the extra curricular program providing they promote pupil participation.
 5. Letters should inform the parents of pupils that fraternities and certain types of other social clubs in high schools are prohibited by the laws of Ohio.
 6. Examples of honor point systems in Ohio schools can be found in the Appendix.
 7. Soccer and volley ball should be found in more schools.
 8. An extra curricular program can be developed upon the basis of a suggested list of seven underlying principles.
27. Claggett, H. E. *The Status of Student Participation in School Government in the County Senior High Schools of Ohio*. August, 1928, Pp. 88.

Problem. To ascertain the present practices relative to student participation in school government in the county senior high schools of Ohio, and to ascertain the relative trends of such practices in the various county senior high schools.

Limitations. Only first class county senior high schools were considered as to present practices and trends.

Sources of Data. Data were collected from first grade county senior high schools which were accredited by the State Department of Education on September 1, 1927. Supplementary information was obtained from professional periodicals and other professional literature.

Technique of the Study. The normative method was used primarily. General results, trends and practices in use at the present time, were the chief aim. This aim was achieved primarily through the questionnaire method. Very little historical data were used with the exception of comments, which seemed to indicate conclusions reached from experiments and practices of various administrators and educators.

Conclusions and Results. Before discussing the results of data obtained from the questionnaire sent out, the author gives a general summary of the various views held by school administrators, relative to student control, which may be summarized as favoring the plan when it is carefully worked out. In the study made, 421 County high school principals cooperated. Of the high schools this number represents, seventy-five had some form of student participation in government. The plan had been tried and abandoned in 28 cases; had never been tried and was not in operation in 318 cases. The chief reasons for student participation not being in operation in the 318 high schools were: (1) faculty supervision was considered satisfactory in 274 cases; (2) lack of information on the part of the students in 82 cases; (3) lack of information on the part of the faculty in 58 cases; (4) superintendent opposed the plan in 34 cases.

Of twenty-eight schools reporting reasons for abandonment of student participation, the chief reasons given were: (1) failure of students to assume responsibility, 22 cases; (2) students not prepared, 14; and (3) students did not want it, 12 cases. Of 28 schools reporting the general effects of student participation, after having been abandoned; eleven reported no noticeable effect; nine said discipline was more difficult; six replied that school spirit was not so good; five felt that school spirit was better; and the remaining nine were about equally divided as to whether the results were good or bad. However, it would seem that the value of participation is considered as positive as 28 schools are considering giving it a

re-trial. Of this group 12 are considering a new trial in a modified form, 8 not considering it, and 8 not replying. Of the 28 schools having used student participation, one used it three years, eight used it two years, eight one year, eight used it one semester, and three used it less than one semester. Twenty-one of these schools gave it one trial, five gave it two trials and one gave it three trials. Of all the schools which have tried and have abandoned the plan, 43% have decided to give it another trial.

Of 75 schools reporting types of organization of student participation now in practice, 36 used student control of libraries, 32 student council, 26 extra-curricular activities, 21 honor study-halls, 30 various committee, etc. However, the report indicates that the type of organization appeared to have no effect upon the success or failure of the plan. The majority of the schools introduced student participation to improve the school spirit and discipline, the number of such cases being 87, while 33 introduced it because of a small faculty, 10 to teach citizenship, and 15 by popular request of teachers and students. However, the greatest difficulty encountered in the introduction of the plan was training the students to assume responsibility. While the greatest contributing factor to its success was the willingness of the student to assume the responsibility.

As a rule student council members were elected by the class groups. The number of members on the council not varying according to school size. However, there was a decided tendency to elect council members from the upper classes. Popularity and leadership seemed to be the predominating factors considered in selecting student council members. There seemed to be a wide variation in methods of electing the council members from that of being elected by class or assembly, approval of principal or class sponsor to that of standards of scholarship and conduct. Of the 52 schools answering the question relative to council meetings, 43 held their council meetings during school hours, and the remaining 9 after school hours. Forty met at stated intervals and at the call of the president and principal. The remaining 12 had no stated time of meeting. Officers usually held office for two semesters (42 out of 52 cases). Members were usually removed by vote of the council or by low scholastic grades. Forty-six of the 52 had no provision to avoid entire change of membership. Twenty-one had a provision and 31 had no provision for removing officers.

Veto power was vested in the principal in most every school. The decisions of the council were subject to referendum by both students and faculty. The majority of the school administrators who had student participation in operation were enthusiastic over the positive results which had been achieved in their school since the introduction of the plan.

Recommendations. Student government should not be introduced until a desire on the part of students for it was evidenced. It should be introduced gradually under competent leadership. It should be a means to an end. It should be kept busy with worth while problems and not shifted responsibilities of the faculty. It should meet not less than weekly. Student control of the study hall should be rarely attempted. It should not be organized unless both students and faculty feel that it will succeed. Successful student participation depends largely upon the attitude of the faculty and students toward each other. An adult capable of sympathetic understanding of student problems and who is willing to help the students solve their problems by meeting them on their own level, must be ever present in the background.

28. Corbitt, Gordon P. *A Method of Financial Administration of Extra-Curricular Activities in Small to Medium Size High Schools*. August, 1931, Pp. 146.

Problem. Reports as to methods employed in numerous systems of financial administration of extra curricular activities funds have shown that there is much laxness in the control of these semi-public funds. Surveys and investigations have shown that the need for better accounting procedures is being met only partially. In the large number of schools which, apparently, do not employ systematic methods of financial control for the student organization funds much loss inevitably takes place.

No progressive school administrator now doubts the need for a program of extra curricular activities. The modern secondary school which has such a program must plan for the raising and spending of money for the activities. Such being the case, the school administrator must find a satisfactory system for the safeguarding of funds received by the various student organizations of his school and also supervise and control the expenditure of these funds. The purpose of this study was to survey the methods and procedures used in a considerable number of secondary schools with the view to determin-

ing the best practices and of discovering the prevailing trends as to methods and procedures. From the findings it was hoped that a system suitable for adoption in the schools of small to medium size might be formulated. The small to medium size high schools—schools up to six hundred enrollment—are the ones which have the least time and personnel available for formulating their own systems.

Limitations Placed on the Problem. Primarily the study was one covering one hundred eight high schools and junior high schools in twenty-eight states. It was the aim to make the survey nation-wide in scope. To do this a limited number of schools had to be selected from all parts of the country. The schools surveyed were "spotted" by sending preliminary inquiries to about one hundred forty schools selected from forty-five states. The literature on the subject of financial administration of extra curricular activities was surveyed. Inquiries also were sent to a number of the leading colleges of education, bureaus of educational research and publishing companies in an effort to locate any similar surveys which had been made or were in process.

Sources of Data. Data for this study were secured from six sources, as follows:

(a) Literature on the subject—articles in leading educational periodicals, books devoting part of their space to the subject and books and pamphlets dealing exclusively with the subject.

(b) Colleges and bureaus of education—replies as to any similar studies.

(c) Publishing companies—replies as to surveys or formulated systems published.

(d) Questionnaires—a preliminary postal card inquiry and a follow-up questionnaire.

(e) Personal visits to schools.

(f) Personal letters to school administrators and the replies received.

Technique of the Study. The method of the study was largely analytical. The problem was to obtain a considerable sampling of the literature on the subject and as many of the forms and procedures as possible in the schools surveyed in detail. The analysis of the various samplings were tabulated and conclusions and recommendations made from the findings.

Findings and Conclusions. 1. Principal Findings

(a) The funds handled annually by the high school activity organizations run into many millions of dollars. This survey placed an estimate of between eleven and twelve dollars per high school pupil as the amount handled annually.

(b) This and other surveys tend to show that there is a woeful lack of the better methods and procedures which might be used in safeguarding these semi-public funds.

(c) The larger the school, generally speaking, the better the system of financial administration and control. This indicated the greater need for a formulated system suitable for adoption by the small to medium size schools.

(d) Schools having the more nearly satisfactory systems, evaluating in terms of best theory and practice as to business principles and educational administration, used a sufficient number of blanks and forms, even though the use did involve some necessary "red tape".

(e) None of the systems surveyed completely measured up to the requirements set for a satisfactory system suitable for use in schools up to six hundred enrollment—the secondary schools of small to medium size.

2. Major Conclusions.

(a) Since the tendency is decidedly in favor of the centralized system of financial administration and since such a system offers decided advantages over all other systems an effective system for the smaller secondary schools should be organized on the centralized plan.

(b) From the responses received there appears to be an alertness to the need for further study and research on the subject.

(c) The very predominant trend seemed to be for school administrators to be satisfied with their present systems as now in operation (yet at the same time realizing the need for further improvement).

(d) Improvements recommended by those cooperating in the study include:

- (1) More and better forms.
- (2) More complete centralization.
- (3) More accurate record of liabilities.
- (4) More student participation in the management of the system.
- (5) Bonding of the central treasurer.
- (6) More care in the making and operation of the budget.

- (7) More accurate accounting by each activity organization.

(e) The central school treasurer and activity treasurers should use sufficient forms and blanks to record properly all transactions in a businesslike manner even though the use does involve a certain amount of "red tape".

(f) At least two signatures should be required to authorize payments. One of these signatures should be that of a student officer of the organization making the payment.

(g) If the system is to be leak proof and fool proof there must be "double check and cross reference" on all transactions. The requirement of two signatures on *all* transactions will effect such proof.

(h) The central treasurer and any other faculty member having a direct responsibility in the handling of the funds should be bonded. The cost of such bond should be provided for out of the activities budget.

(i) The budget should be used for all activities and should be closely adhered to. In cases where an activity overdraws its account it should always be required to make good the overdraft.

(j) The school treasurer or other faculty members should not, except in very special cases, be paid additional for the activities work.

(k) Much greater utilization of the opportunities offered through the school banks should be effected.

(l) All activity accounts should be audited by a competent auditor at least annually. The audit should be paid for out of the general maintenance fund of the activities and be included as an item in the general budget.

(m) The general maintenance fund for the system should be provided from interest on surplus deposits, it being considered of course, that all funds are deposited in a local bank.

(n) Students should be given as large a share as possible, commensurate with good business procedures, in the operation of the system of financial administration and control. Such student participation offers a wealth of education opportunities to the students participating and at the same time creates student confidence (and public confidence) in the system.

29. Duckworth, Benton Raymond. *The Business Management of Extra Curricular Activities in City and Exempted Village Senior and Junior High Schools of Ohio*. August, 1926. Pp. 85.

Problem. The problem involved in this study is primarily to ascertain the methods and devices employed in the city, exempted village, and junior high schools of Ohio in the administration of the finances of the various extra-curricular activities of these schools. The problem is broad as shown by the fact that the author found it necessary to use twenty-seven approaches and to divide the thesis into that many parts, exclusive of the summary. The thesis indicates that the inquiry was sent to every junior and senior high school in Ohio with the two exceptions of a few small rural high schools, and some of the very small village high schools. There is but one limitation to the subject,—each item must have direct bearing on the financial phase of the general problem.

Sources of Data. This study is based on data received from 63 per cent of the principals of city and exempted village high schools and from 47.7 per cent of the principals of junior high schools of Ohio. The data were collected in questionnaire form.

Technique of the Study. The technique employed is wholly normative. Each of the twenty-seven phases of the problem discusses an accompanying table which gives the complete data regarding that subdivision, e. g. the responsibility of student treasurers. Throughout the study, class A schools are those of more than 1000 enrollment; class B, from 501-1000; class C, from 301-500; class D, from 100-300. Thus the table shows for the four classes of schools whether the student treasurer is responsible to the principal, to the sponsor, or to some other person. Percentages are run off for each class and medians are established. No historical development appears.

Findings and Conclusions. The findings are just what the word implies. The author does not set up any recommended procedure in administering the financial affairs of high school activities.

The larger high schools, in the main, hold a faculty member responsible for the administration of the financial program of activities. In the smaller schools, the principal usually assumes this responsibility. Fifty-two per cent of the schools which have a faculty sponsor also have a student treasurer who

is responsible to the sponsor. But no schools hold the students responsible for the finances. Twenty-five per cent of the high schools with an enrollment of 1000 or more require a treasurer's bond. This practice decreases with the decrease in the size of the school until less than five per cent of the schools of 300 or less require a bond.

More than one-half of the larger schools have only one account in the bank. About one-fourth of the schools of less than 500 enrollment pool the funds also. It is, however, a common practice to budget the departments out of this one fund.

About four-fifths of the larger schools use uniform and permanent record systems of financial accounting, but only one-half of the other schools do. The author feels that there is considerable carelessness in this respect. Here is the handling of money, a point always open to criticism by the inquisitive minority; yet many schools are not protecting themselves by keeping records in a form that will speak for themselves. The larger schools also exercise more stringent control in requiring the sponsor or principal to approve all orders for equipment or service, to countersign checks, etc. It is especially interesting to note that only two high schools use the commercial department in helping to keep the records. It would seem that the schools are not availing themselves of the opportunity to co-ordinate the work and to make the activity program as completely educative as it might be made. Seventeen per cent of the high schools do not have their books and records open to the board of education. No doubt in these cases the board has passed up all interest in the matter along with the passing up of any responsibility in helping to finance the program. In a sense this is commendable; however, it is dangerous. Forms used by many schools are: cash journal, ledger, check forms, voucher forms, and report forms.

One-fourth of the schools can not prevent irregularities in the sale of tickets. And one interesting thing is that the schools which do not have trouble in this respect seem to have no "best" method of doing it. The usual custom is for the school authority to make an annual report to the board of education. Many schools have statements submitted to the sponsor or principal monthly or semi-annually. The larger schools receive reports more often than do the smaller schools. Sixty-three percent of the schools transfer funds as the need arises.

It is interesting to note that 68 percent of all receipts in

high schools of less than 300 comes from athletics. Judging by the receipts alone, one can well infer that the schools of this size place tremendous stress upon their athletic programs. The larger schools derive more money from other sources, and naturally have more ways of getting money. The junior high schools have a very small problem in administering the finances of school activities. They receive on the average less than one-seventh the income that even the smallest high schools receive. Of course, this is accounted for by the fact that the junior highs do not promote an inter-school athletic program except, perhaps, on a small scale.

30. Dyer, Wilbur Clyde. *Present Practice of Financing Annuals in Ohio Schools*. June, 1928. Pp. 108.

Problem. The problem of this study is to determine not only the ways and means of financing annuals in Ohio but also to give a satisfactory answer to the evolution of journalism in the schools as well as the present stage of development of the various competing publications, especially the high school newspaper and its chances of exterminating the annual.

Sources of Data. The data for the study were obtained by means of the questionnaire.

Technique of Study. All chapters, exclusive of number five, describe such features as student publications in various Ohio schools, methods of financing annuals, personnel and artistic make-up, problems of the annual, and duties of annual staffs. Chapter five deals with the income and expense statements of annuals.

Findings and Conclusions. School authorities, as never before, are striving to utilize intelligently student publications in reflecting the work of their own schools.

The annual, one of the oldest of the publications, presents two problems, one of financing, and one of editing and managing it. Both of these are directly or indirectly contributing forces to the financial success of the yearbook.

The first one we recognize at once as a financial problem, because it deals directly with income and expense money and can be accurately figured on the dollar and cents basis. An annual cannot be successful without a fairly large and representative school circulation list. A large circulation not only brings in revenue, but also creates a demand for advertising space which adds its share to the income.

Early, thorough, intensive, well planned and well executed subscription campaign drives are necessary. Initiative, originality and fine-combed follow-up methods should result in large subscription lists. Unusual sales talks and booster campaign devices must everywhere evidence a well formulated and increasingly spirited selling scheme. Competitive team work, visible charts, records, tags, and buttons should be utilized. Subscription receipts should provide for a partial installment plan and reduced cash payment plan.

The total advertising pages for an annual will normally range from 15 percent to 25 percent of the entire book. The rates for the different sized insertions will differ in various schools due to customs, and local competitive factors. The charges should be such that volume advertising by a large number of merchants at low rates will prevail rather than a small select group at higher rates. A nicer book will result and more good will of the merchants towards the school will be cultivated by low rates, and an equal amount of advertising revenue will be received. Official approval of advertising solicitation must be secured from Advertising Clubs, Retail Merchant's Associations and Chambers of Commerce in the large cities. It is a good policy to secure the approval of these organizations even in smaller towns.

The selection of advertising manager by popular ballot from an approved list submitted by the faculty seems to be gaining in favor. Candidates should possess qualifications for the office sought. Advertising solicitors are as yet receiving too little training in their sales work. The training is short and indefinite. Thorough campaigns should be planned. School advertising records for the most part consist of old annuals with very few accompanying comments. Business records should be kept of all relations with advertisers. These will help future staffs and make their tasks much easier. School advertising contracts should not only be definite, but also they should bear some message of loyalty, good will and appreciation from the school and its pupils toward the merchant and his business. Restrictions on complimentary annuals to advertisers prevails in most schools.

Division of opinion as to the proper method of distributing individual and group picture and engraving costs exists. The annual fund carries the engraving cost generally with individuals paying for the pictures. Since the assessments are

small where spread over large numbers, business judgment should demand that both costs be collected from the pupils. Proceeds from school plays are used by many schools to swell the annual fund covering these two expense items.

The organization of the staff and the artistic make-up of the annual are indirect financial factors. An efficient staff will save money by spending wisely; thus, the cost of the annual will be reduced. Unusual literary and artistic make-up ideas of the yearbook will create a demand for copies. The conduct of the business of the annual should be on a sound and systematic basis. Early selection of annual staffs is the rule and is extremely desirable because more thought may then be given to the planning of the book.

Demand for annuals in Ohio schools is created because 90 percent or more of the pupils have pictures in the yearbook or are mentioned in some write-up. Pupils like to read about themselves and their friends. Early definite dates for photographing pupils result in better pictures and better cuts. An annual to a large extent is a picture book. Within reasonable limits, the quality of engraving work is far more important than price. The early placing of the order for engravings with the corresponding cash payment for same will effect economies based on the graduated discounts from the Standard Engraver's Scale. These savings may be used either to produce a larger and better book or an annual at a lower cost. Colored pages, though attractive, are not considered worth their extra expense by eighty percent of Ohio schools. Leather covers are prohibitive in cost as well as impractical in service. Composition and paper covers are used for 98 percent of Ohio annuals.

Two-thirds of the schools have the dead line for copy to the printer not later than May 4. This date allows the printer time to do a job of good quality on the annual. Eighty-two percent of the annuals are printed and in the hands of the staff by June 2. Distribution of books, collections on advertising contracts, and the wind-up of the year's business can be well done if the staff has two weeks within which to do it before the close of school.

A survey of the pertinent business contracts of photographers, engravers, and printers with the annual staffs and faculty supervisors indicates a general lack of business detail and cooperation on the parts of those having direction of school publications. A definite code of business ethics and a punctual,

business progress calendar chart strictly adhered to is needed in our schools.

The advice of the photographer, engraver and printer should be sought by the annual staffs concerning their problems. Confidence in the suggestions made by these men will be of great assistance in the building of better annuals at reduced costs.

31. Furst, H. D. *Study of the High School Annual in the Rural and Exempted Villages of Ohio During 1926-27* August, 1928. Pp. 109.

The problem is a study of yearbooks to determine: (1) scholastic value of publication; and (2) best method of producing it. It is limited to a study of the high school annuals of rural and exempted villages in Ohio for the year 1926-27. The data were collected from 865 rural, and 48 exempted villages in Ohio in 1926-27.

It was decided to use the questionnaire as a basis for the study. Personal visitation was rejected because of difficulty and expense involved. A four page questionnaire was sent to each first grade rural and exempted village in the state of Ohio from a list taken from the state department of education. Letters were later sent to the county superintendents asking for the list of the schools publishing annuals. The purpose of the letter was to check against the replies received. In this way it was possible to receive almost one hundred per cent replies from the schools which published annuals. The various schools were asked also to send copies of their annuals if they had copies available. About fifty copies were received. The questionnaires were classified as rural and exempted village. There were returns from seventy-three per cent of the schools, and ninety-six per cent of the county superintendents.

It was found that the staff responsible for editing the annual was selected in three different ways in the various schools: (1) appointment by faculty; (2) class election; and (3) class election with faculty approval. Credit is allowed for work on the annual in sixteen per cent of the schools, varying from no points allowed to one full credit. English teachers are usually the faculty advisers in these publications, and on the whole are well qualified to do so, having experience as follows: (1) college annual; (2) study of journalism; (3) work on newspapers; (4) major in English; and (5) experience with student publications. Work on the annual was usually

begun during September and October. The various sources of revenue are: (1) sale of annual; (2) advertisements; (3) plays; and (4) assessments. Price varied from an average of \$1.19 to \$1.36 for the exempted villages. Eighty-seven and six-tenths per cent of the rural, and eighty-one and eight-tenths per cent of the exempted village executives favored publication of the high school annual, and ninety-three and seven-tenths per cent intended to continue its publication. The following criteria for appraising the annual were set up: (1) provides a permanent record of students; (2) general publicity for the school; (3) keeping the public informed regarding the school; and (4) improving the high school. The value of the annual should increase with age. This should be kept in mind in selecting the material to go into it. It was found that three types of covers were generally used on high school annuals: (1) cardboard, covered with imitation leather; (2) flexible imitation leather; and (3) paper. The number of pages varied from nineteen to one hundred sixty-nine, with a median of fifty. The size varied with a median size of seven and one-half by ten and three-quarters inches. Glazed white paper was used in forty-one, buff in eight, and dull in three. They were dedicated usually to persons, sometimes to organizations, and sometimes to spirit. Senior pictures were usually mounted in panels, with faculty pictures individuals. All contained advertisements, the median number being sixteen pages. The publication was usually sponsored by the senior class.

It is recommended that for those intending to publish a school annual that the following points be observed: A start should be made in September or October. A budget should be drawn up and adhered to. The following schedule approximates what should be allowed for each item: (1) engraving 35-40%; (2) covers 15-20%; and (3) printing 40-50%. The publication should be financed by: (1) sale, at a suggested price of \$1.25 to \$1.50 per copy; (2) assessment; (3) advertising, which should not be overdone; (4) subscriptions should be secured in October; and (5) the publication should pay its own way, and should not be supported by plays, etc., unless absolutely necessary. It should be finished three weeks before commencement. Care should be exercised in selecting a name, and also in carrying a theme throughout. It should contain a title page, foreword, table of contents, calendar, autograph pages; and jokes and humor which should be placed in the advertising section. It should be printed on white glazed paper

using ten point type. The school should seek to build up a library of annuals published in other schools as a basis for ideas for improvement of their own publication. The Art's Craft Review is a good publication to get. Also, printers usually have available a large amount of material on how to publish annuals which will aid those who expect to put out an annual for the first time.

32. Kaiser, Franklin P. *Status of Elementary and High School Commencements in Ohio in 1926*. August, 1927, Pp. 56.

Problem. The problem was first to determine what is actually being done at commencements as well as what should be done to insure the greatest return for the money expended; second to attempt to determine the extent to which elementary schools and junior high schools hold commencements with the resulting accentuation of the break between these critical years in the pupil's school life. This study is limited to 85% of the 93 cities in Ohio which returned the questionnaire and 77% of the 45 exempted villages which replied.

Sources of Data. The questionnaire was used as the sole source of information with the exception of the information contained in the introduction.

Findings and Conclusions. After the results of the questionnaires were tabulated and classified, the following findings led to certain conclusions of a rather general nature.

Among the more common objectives of commencements, given by the school administrators, were the following: (1) educational; (2) inspirational; (3) "selling" the school to the community; (4) recognition of class; (5) to show abilities of class; (6) incentive to undergraduates; (7) to show spirit of school; (8) to make it interesting to parents and friends; and (9) simplicity.

All of the superintendents replying to the questionnaire held commencements. There was wide divergence of opinion as to what form the exercises should take. This opinion varied from where the entire program was turned over to outside talent and outside speakers on the one extreme to the other extreme where the entire graduating exercises were given by the graduating class. The size of school seemed to have little or no influence upon the method used.

Of the city schools having outside speakers, ministers came first in order while the next in line were college professors, followed by college presidents. In the exempted villages

the order was college professors, then college presidents followed by the ministers. The fee paid these speakers by the various cities varied from \$25 to \$150, while in the case of the exempted villages it varied from \$25 to \$100.

A large percentage of the schools charge admission to the graduating exercises as well as to the class plays. The plays are usually given as a part of the commencement exercises.

The custom of sending out formal invitations is still common although it should be discarded.

Most of the schools reporting had baccalaureate exercises, conducted in most cases by a local minister. The minister was chosen in many ways: "class vote," rotation, and ministerial associations, being among the more common. This was also true when it came to the choice of the church in which the exercises were to be held.

A large percentage of the schools excused their seniors from more or less regular school work for work on the commencement program.

Very few schools hold mid-year commencement and the reason most frequently given for not doing so, is because of the added expense.

Thirteen of the 34 schools having junior high schools reported that they held commencements but gave no reason why it would not be just as well to have a commencement upon the completion of the tenth grade as the ninth.

Only 10 cities reported that they held graduating exercises for elementary schools and in many of those instances it would be better to classify them as merely promotion exercises.

There seems to be a tendency to get away from the old graduation exercises where all participated in the program, toward the employing of a paid speaker with the class as guests of honor. There is still a tendency to use one or two members of the class on the program. In most schools the president of the board of education or a member delegated by the board presents the diplomas.

Some suggestions would be, that the graduating exercises be given largely by a paid speaker with the class as guests of honor for the event. This should hold true for the actual graduating exercises and for the baccalaureate exercises. The pupils should have a chance to display their talents in class plays and class days.

The presentation of medals for meritorious work may well be included somewhere in the commencement program but preferably not as a part of the graduating exercises. These programs all demand nearly perfect organization if we are to avoid many costly blunders.

There is a tendency to have printed commencement programs. These programs vary from a single page, containing merely the names of the graduating class with dates, to the twelve page leaflet containing the class roll, cast of play, all honor pupils in the class, and all other information that might be desired concerning the class or the commencement program. One school went so far as to place the names of the pupils on the programs in the order of their rank in the class. This is a very questionable procedure for obvious reasons.

33. Scamman, E. A. *Student Newspapers In Ohio Village High Schools*. August, 1929. Pp. 86.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to determine what is being accomplished by Ohio high schools in the matter of student publication of newspapers. Further to study the methods of management and control of the papers and the mechanical-make-up and form of the papers. The study does not attempt to determine whether or not high school newspapers are justified nor does it attempt to define their purpose.

Sources of Data. The names of 150 high schools which publish or had intentions of publishing newspapers were secured from the 88 county superintendents in Ohio. Questionnaires were then sent to the principals of the schools named, asking questions regarding the newspapers and their management; information which could not be found in the newspapers themselves. Copies of all the different issues of their papers for a year were requested for study.

Technique of the Study. The questionnaire called for statistics, opinions, and suggestions. The statistics included what is actually being done in the matter of student publications from the standpoint of material, selection of the staff, management and supervision, costs and financing. The opinions and suggestions pertained to the purpose of the publications and the criteria of procedure in the publication of a newspaper.

Findings and Conclusions. Only 82 of the principals re-

ported as having student papers. Of those 50 were published monthly. A few large schools published weekly papers.

There was much variance of opinion among the principals as to the purposes of having the student paper. The three main purposes given were: (1) the papers gave wider publicity to real high school news; (2) they help to create and maintain a good wholesome school spirit; and (3) they interested the community in the school.

Schools should have a strong demand on the part of the entire student body before they can expect to successfully maintain a student paper, the study reveals. The student staff was usually appointed by the principal or faculty adviser, or both. In about a fourth of the cases it was chosen by the students. The general tendency was not to give extra credit for being on the staff of the paper.

To be successful the staff must have a faculty adviser who was usually chosen by the principal. The one usually chosen was the teacher of English or related subjects.

The papers, generally, are self-supporting, depending mainly on subscriptions and advertisements for revenue. The larger schools print their own papers in the schools, making their expenses much less per copy than the smaller schools which are often forced to send their papers to other cities to be published.

The principal is usually responsible for the financial side of the paper. It is hard for him to "break even" with the paper in small schools.

The typical student newspaper is 15x11 inches in size, has 6 pages, 4 columns per page, each column $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, contains 240 column inches, and is printed on white machine finish paper with 8 point type. However, there is much variance in the different papers.

Of the content of the average paper, one-fourth is occupied by advertising, next comes athletics, and the remainder of the paper is about equally divided among the different school activities.

In general the study shows that the student paper is an important part of the school of today and, if under proper management in a large enough school, is a decided asset to the school.

34. Thompson, Carl Vernet. *A Study of the Home Room Activities of the Senior and Four-Year High Schools of Ohio*. August, 1930. Pp. 102.

Because of the fact that the home room organization is still in the formative period, there is a problem as to its purposes, organization, duties of the home room teacher, and its activities. The only limitation placed on this problem is that the data come from senior and four-year high schools of Ohio during the school year 1929-1930. These data were received from the principals of 276 senior and four-year high schools of one hundred, or more, enrollment, in answer to a five-page questionnaire concerning all angles of the four phases of the problem as stated.

Slightly more than one-half of the schools report as having home room activities now, and many others expect to institute home room practices soon. A much larger percent of the schools having an enrollment from 300 to 800 have adopted the home room than either the smaller or the larger schools. However, the larger schools that use the home room plan have a more complete organization and a more extensive curriculum.

The principals agree rather well on these five purposes:

1. To check absentees and tardies.
2. To provide a definite place where pupils may go for sympathetic advice, necessary information, etc.
3. To facilitate the giving of personal attention to each pupil.
4. To inculcate the habits, ideals, and attitudes of the school.
5. To re-establish in large systems the pupil-teacher relationships of the smaller school.

The objectives of the home-room are:

1. Educational, vocational, and social guidance.
2. Participation in school citizenship.
3. Its use as an administrative agency.

The home room period is ordinarily the first thing in the morning, or the first period after lunch, or both; it lists on its roll from 20 to 50 pupils, usually in the same grade. The officers common to the typical home room are; president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, cheer leader, thrift officer, and ticket seller. The tendency in the large schools is to elect officers each semester; in the other schools, once each year. Though perhaps contrary to the second objective—participa-

tion—the teacher usually presides. Fewer than ten percent of the schools use parliamentary law all of the time; about one-third use it some of the time. A common practice is for the pupils to form their own home room programs.

While 31.2 percent of the schools with an enrollment of 800 or more have the home room teacher remain with the same group through high school, the usual plan is to organize new groups each semester or each year. One can understand from this why the teacher does not keep the cumulative records in her room. The author concludes by saying, "There are comparatively few activities common to the home rooms of a large percent of the Ohio schools. There is little differentiation as to the year in high school in which a certain activity should be introduced."

PART VI. STUDIES DEALING WITH THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDS, AND METHODS OF ACCREDITING SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

35. Bishop, Herman Davis. *The Standards by Which the Legally Authorized Agencies Accredite, Approve and Classify Secondary Schools in the United States*. August, 1928, Pp. 97.

The Problem. The problem of this thesis is to find out the actual practice in the different states as to the standards whereby secondary schools are classified. It is the purpose of this study to investigate the work of the legally constituted accrediting agencies in each of the states of the union with the idea of finding just what are the specific factors taken into consideration or accredited by these agencies. This problem is concerned only with the standards adopted by the legally established accrediting and classifying agencies in each of the states of the union where these requirements are mandatory.

Sources of Data. The data were received from official publications of the state departments of education or the state universities depending upon which of these functions is the legal accrediting agency. Letters were sent to the state Superintendent of Public Instruction in each state. Usable data were received from everyone of the states except Arizona. From Nevada a letter was received stating that no attempt was made in that state to classify or accredit.

Techniques of the Study. The material from each state was carefully examined and tabulated according to states.

From these tabulations by states others were made showing the position of each state on each required standard. This set of tabulations put the data in such form that the standards in the various states may be readily compared both by states and by requirements.

Findings and Conclusions. The four year high school is still the outstanding secondary school organization throughout the United States. The three, two and one year schools follow next. There is a tendency in the individual states to keep the work of the less than three year high schools closely articulated with that of the four year schools. The requirements of the legal accrediting agencies also show a tendency to group these four year schools according to enrollment, number of teachers, number of curricula offered, requirements for graduation and the degree to which these standards are met.

The junior high school has become the second most frequent type of school recognized although the requirements for the accrediting of this type are comparatively meager. The material suggests strongly a need for more senior high schools to articulate with junior high schools. The 6-5 plan terminating in the junior-senior school has not yet been widely accepted by the legal accrediting agencies.

From the point of view of standards for buildings much is needed in the way of specific requirements. The requirements of Departments of Public Health and Safety receive greatest recognition, while the requirements regarding lighting, heating, ventilating, cleaning and furniture are very indefinite. In only a few states are requirements of the legal accrediting agency sufficiently complete and specific to guarantee conditions of safety in buildings. In most states where proper hygienic conditions are stipulated, the accrediting agencies fail to specify the requirements. The type and plan of the building housing a secondary school, according to standards in most states, do not have many standards. The same is true of standards for laboratories, libraries, and their equipment and the visual side of instruction.

Proper supervision is generally accepted as having extreme importance in the welfare of a school, yet the minimum standards set down by most legal accrediting agencies guaranteed a very limited amount of supervision. The qualifications required of teachers and administrators are more specific. The standards for teachers' certificates are quite defi-

nite and specific. There is much evidence of a desire for flexibility of program of studies on the part of the accrediting agencies, attention being frequently called to the desirability of meeting the community needs and individual differences. College entrance requirements are no longer the dominating factor in determining high school programs of study or requirements for graduation. Routine of accreditation although involving considerable detail is not of a professional nature and does not have a significant bearing on the character of the school or the quality of the work done. Part VI furnishes evidence of a strong desire on the part of accrediting agencies to encourage school officials to see to it that the minimum standards are excelled by their schools.

The comparison of standards set up by the various regional accrediting associations and those of the legal accrediting agencies lead to the conclusion that the legally authorized agencies, except in the case of Idaho, make no attempt to meet the standards of the regional associations. There is considerable evidence, however, of the influence of the regional associations on the standards set up by the legal agencies. In view of all the points presented it would seem advisable that more uniformity of standards be developed throughout the different states. A general adoption of these standards which the various states find particularly desirable in so far as these standards are workable, is worthy of consideration. This would mean the inclusion in the standards of many states, requirements which are not now mentioned by them. The substitution of "shall" for "should" at various points in the statements of standards by many states would go far toward removing significant factors of school welfare from the realm of political devices now in use by numerous school officials of all rank.

36. Fankhouser, Henry Arthur. *Methods of Accrediting High Schools*. March, 1929. Pp. 199.

Problem. The problem involved in this study is an attempt to discover ways in which high schools are accredited in the different states. It is not a study of standards nor requirements, but only of methods by which the accrediting agencies of the various states work.

Sources of Data. The data for this thesis were secured directly from the accrediting agency of each of the states in-

volved in the study from which it was possible to secure data. Forty-one of the forty-eight states gave replies.

The material was collected by means of a questionnaire followed by a second and third if necessary in an effort to get material from as many states as possible. With this questionnaire also was sent a letter explaining its purpose, and a request for the forms used in this work. Replies of some sort were received from forty-one states. Only two states, Arizona and Louisiana, failed to answer either the questionnaire or send forms.

Findings and Conclusions. These studies reveal that there is little uniformity among the different states in accrediting high schools. There are two common ways of accrediting high schools among the various states: (1) by the state department of education through a written report and by personal inspection, or both; (2) by the state universities. It is found that some states have inspection by one of these agencies, others by the other agency, still other states, have a combination form involving both.

Four state universities carry out the inspection independent of the state department of education. Four universities carry on inspections with the state department. In twenty-two states the state department has complete control of accrediting high schools.

The term "accredited" high school is not used in all states. Twenty-two states use the term "accredited"; sixteen, "approved"; three "recognized"; four "classified"; one "registered"; one "standard". Nevada has no system.

Forty-seven states by state law require accrediting. In forty-two states, the state department of education has absolute control of accrediting, or works with the state university in this work. Twelve state universities have control of inspection. A point of agreement among the various states was the fact that nearly all require some form of a written report to be made to the accrediting agency by the local authorities. This is usually followed by inspection to see whether the conditions are as reported.

Nearly all states require that a request for accrediting be made by the local board of education or by the administrative head of the school or by both before an effort will be made to accredit the school. Twenty-one states require the local board of education to file the request; twenty-eight require

the administrative head of the school to file the request; seven states require the request to be signed by both. All but three states require the report to be filed. The time of filing the report varies from the first month of school, September, to the last month, June, excepting April. Thirty-four states require an annual report; three a semi-annual report.

The first step taken by the accrediting agency when notified is to send out the report form, which, on being filled out and returned, is usually verified by a personal inspection, if the standards of the school approximate the conditions necessary for accrediting. If the school is duly accredited, it receives notice of accrediting usually by a formal charter, but in some states simply by a letter stating that it is accredited. The duration of the charter is usually one year, sometimes for three, and sometimes until revoked for failure to keep up to standard. Forty states accredit on the reports and personal inspection; three depend entirely on personal inspection. The inspector's work consists in checking building, equipment, teachers, records, school policies. The number of inspectors varied. New York had most with twenty-five; fifteen states had only one; nine states had two; Texas had nine. In twenty-six states there was some inspection of work below the high school; thirteen paid no attention to the inspection of work below the high school.

The summary of the items included in the report blanks is incomplete as blanks were not received from all states. Thirty-eight states check teaching staff; fifteen on administration; twenty-one on curriculum; twenty-five on daily program; twelve on financial conditions; nineteen on instructional equipment; thirty-three on science equipment; thirty-two on library equipment; twenty-two on enrollment; fifteen on records and reports; thirty on buildings; and four on extra-curricular activities. The pupil teacher ratio was touched by a number of reports rather indefinitely.

It is concluded that a great amount of good work is being done in the inspection and accrediting of high schools. The number of inspectors is inadequate for the most efficient inspection except in New York, Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, Texas, Utah, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. More attention is needed on inspection of grades below high school. Report blanks should be simplified and made to include essential information only. It was found that one report asked for the same information

three times. Such duplication should be avoided. Report forms used by universities are better constructed than those used by state departments.

It is recommended:

- (1) That accrediting be done jointly by state department and state university.
- (2) There should be one inspector to each one hundred fifty schools.
- (3) More attention should be paid to report blanks.
- (4) Report should contain essentials only.
- (5) Report forms should be uniform size cards, 5x8 in.
- (6) That reports be filed not later than October 1, of each year.
- (7) That inspectors be required to file a report of conditions with the state department, the school board, and the local administrative head of the school.

37. Goetting, M. Luther. *The Development of High School Standards in Ohio, 1880-1930*. March, 1931. Pp. 150.

Problem. Any educational standard, to be of value, must be revised and improved from time to time. It is the purpose of this study in general to show the fundamental changes that have occurred in the development of standards for Ohio high schools since 1880—this being the year that formal accrediting of high schools was first begun in Ohio by Ohio State University. The study shows what high school standards in Ohio have been from the standpoint of College Entrance Requirements, Legislation, State Department of Education, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and Inspection of High Schools; and further shows the extent to which legislation, high school standards of the North Central Association, and College entrance requirements affected the high school standards of the State Department of Education.

Sources of Data. The data were secured from the Ohio School Reports, Ohio School Laws, including Session Laws, Bulletins of the Ohio State Department of Education, Catalogues of various Colleges and Universities of Ohio, Proceedings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Transactions of the Ohio College Association and North Central Association Quarterly.

Technique of Study. This study deals with the historical phase of high school standards in Ohio from 1880 to 1930. In presenting the data the discussion was supplemented with tables when possible.

Findings and Conclusions. Standards for high schools always have been an important phase of their administration and are becoming increasingly so. There have been several agents and agencies which established standards for high schools in Ohio, among which were college entrance requirements, legislation, state department of education, and the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges.

The earliest standards for the high schools of Ohio were the entrance requirements of colleges and universities. These did not affect all the high schools directly but they became increasingly important as enrollment in higher education increased and the high schools were expected to prepare students for college. The requirements of subjects for the first one or two decades after 1880 were stated as the specific subjects required, sometimes mentioning definite textbooks and number of years required in the subject. By 1900, and during the five years following, most of the colleges began to express their entrance requirements in terms of "units". Various definitions of unit were given by the different colleges and these changed from time to time but in general the unit meant one high school subject pursued for one year.

Between 1880 and 1900 the entrance requirements were rather definitely fixed for every person entering a particular college. Shortly after 1900 certain definite subjects were required with the privilege of choosing enough electives to make a total of fifteen units. One of the noticeable features of the requirements was the gradual disappearance of Greek about the beginning of the present century and a corresponding decline in the total language requirement. The number of languages from which choice could be made to fulfill the entrance requirements has gradually increased.

There has been and is yet a great variation among entrance requirements of the colleges that were studied, some still setting up very definite requirements and others accepting any one who had met the requirements of graduation from a first grade high school. This variation is rather to be expected considering the different purposes and the different

conditions under which each was established. In 1880 admission to college was based on examination. The data studied showed that in this year and during a few years following "admission by certificate" was adopted. However, entrance by examination is still possible for those who have not graduated from high school. The work done in high school is accepted in lieu of examination in all the institutions studied if the required subjects are met, however graduation from high school is urged by all colleges at present as a prerequisite for entering.

Legislation has had a very important part in establishing high school standards in Ohio especially during the latter half of the period under consideration. Legislation has been enacted from time to time regarding the subjects to be taught in all of the public schools as well as in the high schools.

The first high school standards of the state department of education were published in 1903 just after the law was passed requiring the high schools to be classified by the state school commissioner. These standards did little except state the provisions of the law. By 1914 the standards were better formulated and they were revised and improved several times before 1930. There was also a shift of emphasis during this period resulting in allowing more credit for the "newer" subjects. During this time the qualifications for teachers have increased. The school year was increased in length with more definite requirements made regarding the time spent in laboratory work. Requirements for school buildings have become more definite and detailed. Standards for laboratory equipment and libraries have been raised. More emphasis also is given now to such matters as records and reports; and the standards of the elementary school.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools established its first standards for accrediting high schools in 1902. Although it is a voluntary association the standards have affected the schools of Ohio and also seem to have had an influence on some of the high school standards of the state department of education, especially those pertaining to the following: teaching load, length of class period, number of teachers, academic and professional training of teachers, and teachers' salaries.

The two authorities for inspecting high schools in Ohio have been the colleges and universities, and the state depart-

ment of education. Ohio State University adopted the plan of admitting students by certificate in 1880. In 1888 a plan of inspection of high schools was begun by the university. In 1903 a high school visitor was appointed to inspect the high schools for purposes of accreditation for the university. In 1908 the number was increased to two which continued to 1914, at which time a cooperative plan was adopted with the state department of education. It is not very evident what standards were set up as a basis for inspection by the high school visitor, the indication being that they were based rather largely on the subjective judgment of the inspector. They nevertheless had an important influence on the high schools of the state.

The first legislation providing for the offices of high school inspectors at the state department of education was enacted in 1909 after considerable agitation. There were two inspectors from 1909 to 1914. At this time there was provided a board of eight inspectors including the two at the state department, and the others serving part time, coming from the state colleges and universities. After 1921 appropriation was made for only the two inspectors at the state department of education.

A high school standard should not be considered as merely a goal to be achieved by all high schools and beyond which it is undesirable to go. It does, however, in actual practice serve as a goal the attainment of which requires considerable effort on the part of many of the smaller schools of the state. In its broadest sense a standard should be thought of as a technique for evaluating the amount of work done by the school and the efficiency with which it is done. A standard should be considered a means to an end and not an end in itself.

The high school standards of the state have been revised and adjusted from time to time utilizing the scientific researches in the field of education as far as seemed consistent with good administrative policy, considering conditions existing in the schools of the state as a whole. Many of the standards set up today for the high schools of Ohio might be criticized from the standpoint of validity since they were arrived at arbitrarily in the absence of scientific knowledge on the subject to which they pertain. However, intelligent judgment considerably arrived at deserves considerable recognition in the absence of objective data.

PART VII. STUDIES DEALING WITH SPECIAL TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

38. Maurer, Harold R. *The Status of the Summer School in the Secondary Schools of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in 1930.* August, 1931. Pp. 111.

Although the secondary summer school is generally recognized as an integral part of our educational system, the educational literature of the past decade contains but few references to the summer term. The studies of Deffenbaugh in 1917, Bush in 1923, Hoffman in 1924 and Jones in 1925 showed: that the summer school was recognized as an integral part of the school system; that there had been a decided increase in the popularity of the summer school as evidenced through growth in the enrollment; and that the summer school was for students of all types, those who had never failed subjects of the regular school curriculum as well as for "repeaters" or those who attended the summer session in order to make up deficiencies incurred during the regular session of the high school.

The movement is comparatively new, and like all new movements it is having to develop from small beginnings. Many experiments will be necessary before it will become as well standardized as the regular high school. The thought of the writer was that it would undoubtedly be of great assistance to the superintendents, and principals, interested in this phase of the educational problem, to have before them the experience of others in the field. The purpose of the study is, therefore, to reveal the status of the summer school in the Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania and to derive a set of principles that will be of some assistance to school administrators in meeting the problem in their own institutions. The field of this study has been delimited in the following manner: first, to summer sessions conducted on the secondary school level (including the traditional four year high schools, junior high schools, senior high schools and junior-senior high schools); second, to high schools in the state of Pennsylvania having a student enrollment of one hundred or more. In actual practice this restriction did not eliminate any of the schools reporting the conduct of summer sessions as all schools reporting summer sessions for 1930 had a student enrollment above one hundred.

The type of this study is both descriptive and statistical.

The conditions as found have been listed and presented in both a descriptive and graphic manner. The data have been obtained from: first, the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania; second, personal visits to a number of the schools reporting summer schools; third, personal correspondence with the administrator directly in charge of the summer school, a questionnaire blank being included in this personal correspondence; fourth, a survey of the educational literature related to the problem; fifth, personal correspondence with the superintendents in whose districts the summer schools function, a questionnaire blank being included in this correspondence.

The findings of the study indicate that the median summer high school in Pennsylvania in 1930 had conducted summer sessions seven years or more, and was under the direct supervision of the regular high school principal. In most cases the faculty was picked by the superintendent of schools from the staff of the regular high school, following the teaching requirements of the regular school year. This median summer high school had an enrollment of eighty-six students who attended a six-weeks, or longer, session. The subjects taught were determined by making a canvass of the students who were to attend and then offering those subjects in which many students had failed. Eight students were required to establish a summer school class. The summer high school in Pennsylvania is chiefly a school for "flunkers". The classes of the summer school are usually smaller than those of the regular school year and met five days a week for sixty-minute recitation periods. The total amount of time spent in classes was 33.3 per cent less than the requirements of the State Department of Public Instruction. The school day began at 8:00 o'clock and closed at noon with four classes and three daily preparations representing the school day for the teacher. Over half of the pupils who attended the summer school had failed work during the regular school year. The median summer high school offered only certain subjects and determined the subject offerings according to the needs or failures of its students. A major portion of the work assigned in the regular high school was covered during the summer session.

The majority of the district and county superintendents were of the opinion that the work done during the summer session was of a satisfactory nature, although a number of

the superintendents expressed the positive conviction that summer school work was a "make-shift" arrangement and encouraged students to fail and repeat courses which might otherwise have been passed during the regular school session. The majority of the summer school principals expressed the opinion that in their experience, the chief purpose of the summer school was to "aid those pupils who wished to make up their deficiencies." They also opined that the quality of the work done in the summer school was "good". The majority, (79.4 per cent) of students who enroll in the summer high school passed all of their subjects and 82.2 per cent of the summer school students "make good" in the next regular session of the high school. This fact indicates that the work of the summer school must be of a satisfactory nature.

The principal of the median summer high school devoted only 10 per cent of his time to the supervision of instruction and conducted faculty meetings periodically throughout the summer term. Practically nothing was being done in the fields of extra-curricular activities and guidance. In view of the fact that extra-curricular activities and pupil guidance are fast becoming increasingly important elements of the modern school program it would appear that summer school principals might profitably make definite provisions for them on the program of the summer school.

The median summer high school was financed in part by a special budget appropriation and in part by tuition charges which in most cases were assessed the non-resident students on the basis of a flat rate for the summer term. There was little agreement as to the amounts of the tuition charges assessed by the various districts. The high school principal was designated as the agent in immediate charge of the financial administration of the median summer high school, and the salary paid the summer school teachers was a "flat sum" agreed upon by the teacher and the school. Discontinuing this summer school would only mean a saving to the school system of 0.8 per cent of the total regular high school budget. The per pupil cost in the median summer high school was \$8 per pupil enrolled.

An analysis of the organization and administrative practices of the schools included in the investigation, together with the remarks and statements of the superintendents and principals who have been in direct charge leads the writer to be-

lieve that: (1) there is a definite need and place for the summer session of the high school, (2) there are serious weaknesses and administrative difficulties that should be avoided in the organization and administration of these schools, (3) the summer high school can be maintained on a sound educational basis, (4) a well organized and administered summer school will prove to be a valuable adjunct to the regular session of the high school, (5) it can adequately serve the needs of the students who may wish to take advantage of its opportunities and facilities.

The right of pupils to free public secondary education has been so long established that tuition charges for summer school work should be universally discouraged. The cost of the summer school is such a small fraction of the total cost of a school system that the argument of "added great expense" as a reason for charging tuition is no longer considered valid. More of the administrator's time should be devoted to the supervision of instruction in view of his professional responsibility as a supervisory agent, and faculty meetings should be conducted at regular intervals. Definite provisions should be made for extra-curricular activities and pupil guidance because the need for pupil guidance and counseling in the summer school is as great, if not greater, than that of the regular school year. Summer schools in Pennsylvania have advanced little beyond the stage of being a "flunkers school" but it is encouraging to note that increasingly large numbers of students are utilizing its facilities as a means of doing "advanced" work or as a means of repeating courses in order to secure a higher grade.

39. Young, Franklin M. *A Study of Seven Ohio Night High Schools*, August, 1931. Pp. 114.

Problem. The purpose of this study is to show as many phases concerning the organization and administration of the night high schools of Ohio as it was possible to secure information upon through questionnaires. No school was taken for consideration which did not get the major portion of its support from public taxation. Affiliation with the State Department of Education was not a prerequisite to consideration. No Y. M. C. A. or private night high schools were included.

Sources of Data. Practically all of the information for the study was obtained by means of four questionnaires as follows: (1) a locating questionnaire sent to all city and ex-

empted village superintendents in Ohio; (2) a pupil questionnaire; (3) a teacher questionnaire; and (4) an administrator questionnaire. A survey of the periodical literature was also made to show the history of the movement in this and other countries.

Technique of the Study. One chapter of the study was of historical nature showing the development of these schools, especially, in Germany, England, and the United States. The remainder of the study was based upon the data obtained from the pupil, teacher, and administrator questionnaires. These data were presented in fifty tables appearing in three chapters of the manuscript.

Findings and Conclusions. In October, 1856, Cincinnati started the first free evening high school, conducted and supported by public school authorities, in the country. This was followed, ten years later, by a similar school, in New York City. Other cities followed in rapid order and by 1900, Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, Cambridge, Washington, Fall River, Newark, Jersey City, Patterson, Los Angeles, Worcester, Providence, New Haven, Lawrence, Hartford, Springfield, San Francisco, and Albany had established such schools. In 1903, the United States Commissioner of Education had records showing fifty-nine of these schools, with four hundred twenty-six teachers and forty thousand five hundred sixty-eight pupils, in thirty-two cities. That the movement has gained much favor may be seen from the fact that many smaller cities have organized these schools to a degree surpassing day high school organization.

The general aim of all of these schools seems to be an attempt to meet the needs of young men and young women who have failed to obtain a secondary education during the years which are normally spent in high school.

Of the one thousand forty-six pupils answering the questionnaires, five hundred forty-seven were males and four hundred ninety-nine were females. A total of twenty-eight nationalities were given with 72.5 per cent of the pupils being native American. German, Italian, Irish, Negro, English, Slavish, and Jewish pupils were represented in appreciable numbers. Springfield had the highest native American population (82.6%) and Youngstown, the lowest (52.8%).

The ages of the pupils ranged from ten to sixty with a median age of twenty-two. The ages of eighteen, nineteen,

and twenty were given, respectively, by one hundred nineteen, one hundred six, and ninety-four pupils. Forty-two per cent of the pupils were under the age of twenty-one.

The age when leaving the public schools ranged from ten to twenty-seven with a median of seventeen. Sixty-five and seven-tenths per cent of the pupils left the public schools at the ages of sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen. Forty-five per cent of the pupils had attended the twelfth grade and 29.3 per cent of the total number indicated that they had graduated from high school.

A total of one hundred seventy-five occupations were listed with housekeepers and general clerical workers heading the list with one hundred three, and eighty-eight, respectively. Grouped in general occupational fields, the commercial, professional, and industrial pursuits were represented by 29.7 per cent, 20.5 per cent, and 14.8 per cent of the pupils, respectively. Eighteen and seven-tenths per cent of the pupils were not engaged in any occupation, and 5.9 per cent were attending day high school or college.

A total of thirty-three reasons were given for attendance in the night schools, of which 'working to help support family' and, 'too old for day school' were checked the greatest number of times (two hundred forty-six, and two hundred thirty, respectively). In a more general classification, economic reasons played an important part in the attendance, having been checked four hundred thirteen times in a total number of sixteen hundred fifty-seven checks made by all pupils. Fifty of the pupils gave no reason for attendance.

Out of the nine subject groups offered by these seven schools, there were five hundred seventy-nine registrations in commercial subjects, two hundred ninety-four in English, two hundred six in mathematics, one hundred eighty-seven in languages, one hundred seventy in social sciences, one hundred twenty in vocational subjects, and one hundred nine in natural sciences. Beginning typewriting and shorthand were, unquestionably, the most popular courses offered.

Of the one hundred fourteen teacher questionnaires returned, eighty-four were answered by men and thirty by women teachers. A total of seven nationalities were shown, although one hundred six teachers were native Americans. Eleven day occupations were given by these teachers, five of which were connected with some phase of school work. Although 17.5

per cent of the teachers held no degrees of any kind, 26.3 per cent held advanced degrees. Thirty-two teachers had extra college credit over the degree held, most of which was work applying on their master's degree. The mean number of extra quarter hours credit per teacher was 26.2. The mean teaching experience was 13.2 years. Nineteen of these teachers had some administrative experience. The average number of years teaching experience in the night high schools was 5.5 years. Fifty-two teachers had had experience in forty-four occupations other than teaching. A total of thirty-three different kinds of certificates were held by these teachers. A broader classification of the certificates would list them as follows: (1) life (all types) 105; (2) special (all types) 22; and (3) provisional (all types) 6. The salaries ranged from \$42 in Springfield to \$714 in Youngstown. The median salary for all cities was \$240, Columbus having the highest (\$410) and Piqua, the lowest (\$150).

The name 'principal' was used in each of the seven schools to designate the administrative head of the school. The requirements for teaching were practically the same as for day high school teaching but more exceptions were made because of the necessity of securing many teachers on short notice. The length of school year ranged from twenty weeks in Piqua to thirty-four weeks in Columbus. The number of nights per week ranged from two to four. All schools had two class periods per night except Columbus, which had three. Youngstown had two hour recitation periods, the other six cities having only one hour periods. The minimum time for graduation ranged from four years in Youngstown to eight years in Dayton and Springfield. Columbus was the only city offering any extra-curricular work. There was no uniformity in the methods of handling absence and tardiness, the methods of publicity in use, or the fees charged to pupils.

PART VIII. STUDIES DEALING WITH PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

40. Gump, Ohmer Pauldin. *A Study of the Interior Arrangements of the Junior High School Buildings of Ohio*. December, 1928. Pp. 82.

Problem. The object of this study is to get, if possible, a picture of the layout of the interior arrangement of the junior high schools of Ohio; to determine if there is sufficient uni-

formity that tabulations may be made and some conclusions drawn. The study and findings are limited to the 111 junior high schools as given in the Educational Directory of Ohio 1927-1928.

Sources of Data. Data for this study were secured by the questionnaire method. Eighty-six of the 111 schools to which the questionnaire was sent returned questionnaires. Twelve of the replies were too inadequate to use. Tabulations were made and conclusions drawn from the 74 remaining schools.

Technique of the Study. The study was historical to the extent that the development of the interior arrangement of the high school and the junior high school was given showing how the buildings gradually changed in form to accommodate the varying curricula. The study can not be classified as scientific as there is too much chance for error in the questionnaire method of securing data.

Findings and Conclusions. The results show a rather slow departure from the traditional type of building. The modern school building has been developed in an incredible short time, less than a century. The junior high school is a young organization, the first being established in Columbus, Ohio, in 1909. Economy measures have been responsible in many communities for the development of the junior-senior high schools.

The study of space for the various departments of the school indicates that all schools have a principal's office. Space for industrial arts is included in all except one. Space for cooking was provided in all cases. Space for sewing was provided in all but one while space for mechanical drawing was provided in all but thirteen. Space for music was provided in 63.5 percent of the cases. Space for freehand drawing was provided in 44.5 percent of the cases. Less than 50 percent of the schools provided space for general science.

Slightly more than half of the buildings included three floors besides the basement which has considerable bearing upon elimination of waste through misplacement of departments. The data reveal a decided lack of space provision in the smaller schools for the so-called special activities. In general, buildings have been inadequate to the needs and ideals of the organization. Fifty-six and six-tenths percent of the junior high school buildings in Ohio are original buildings remodeled for junior high school purposes.

The study reveals practically no limitations upon the variety of floor space provision, which reflects the very purpose of the junior high school. It also reveals the advisability of using interior construction that will lend itself to an ever-changing curriculum with the least expenditure of money.

41. Halbedel, Walter N: *Junior High School Interscholastic Athletics in the State of Ohio*. August, 1931. Pp. 103.

Problem. To determine the status of interscholastic athletics in the junior high schools of the state of Ohio, and to determine the desirability of setting up some type of organization for maintaining uniform rules and regulations governing interscholastic athletics in the junior high schools throughout the state. The problem is limited to all recognized junior high schools in Ohio, and to the corresponding junior high school groups (the 7th, 8th and 9th grades) of the six year high schools in the state, which groups are often organized for athletic purposes, the same as the junior high schools.

Sources of Data. It was considered advisable to collect from all junior high schools in Ohio, as well as six year high schools maintaining separate athletic teams for the 7th, 8th and 9th years the needed information. First, by means of a letter to all the principals of junior and six year high schools, it was found whether they engaged in interscholastic contests or not. A prepared questionnaire was then sent to the principals having interscholastic athletics.

Technique of the Study. The questionnaire was divided into two parts, one part to be answered by the principal of the school, and the other part by the athletic coach. The questions asked of the principal were for the most part concerned with the administrative procedure pertaining to athletics, and those asked of the coach were concerned with the athletic program of the school. There were 379 preliminary letters sent, 119 to junior high school principals of which 111 were returned, and 260 to six year high school principals, of which 225 answers were received.

Of these 336 answers, 92 junior high school principals reported having interscholastic sports, while 113 of the six year schools so reported.

The questionnaires were then sent to the above. Sixty-five principals of junior high schools answered, while 76 of the six year high school principals replied. From the returns of the 141 questionnaires the study was made.

Findings and Conclusions. It was found that the main reason as given by the principals for having interscholastic athletics was the developing of school spirit with the educational advantages of athletics a close second. A large percentage of the schools required neither physical examinations nor the consent of parents for a player to become a member of an athletic team and only a few of the schools pay for all surgical and medical attention for injuries sustained in athletics. It was also revealed that junior high teams play many games with teams not of their age or grade. Many junior high games are played at night but not to so great an extent as are those of the six year high schools. Very few schools financed their athletics from gate receipts alone, depending in varying degrees on other sources for at least a portion of the funds necessary for carrying on interscholastic athletics. The junior high schools in cities usually belonged to athletic leagues or associations. The eligibility rules of the schools belonging to athletic leagues or associations were more uniform than those not belonging. Coaches as a group had high scholastic training but had not much college credit in physical education. A surprisingly large percentage of the girls' teams were coached by men.

Basketball, track, football and baseball received by far the greatest consideration as interscholastic sports by the junior high teams. The junior high athletic program was practically a duplicate of the high school and college athletic programs as far as the type of sports engaged in was concerned. Many sports such as soccer, speedball, volleyball and tennis, which are ideal for the junior high age, were given but little time. The schedules in basketball and football were very long as a rule. Much time was given to them in practice and playing. The time given to baseball and track, and the schedules in these sports seemed more in keeping with the junior high school age. What has been said refers to boys' athletics.

Interscholastic athletics for girls was much less of a factor in the junior high school than boys' athletics. Less than one-third of the replies reported having girls' athletics. Only two sports, basketball and track, were engaged in by the girls to any extent. On the whole, the schedules of games and practices were found to be moderate. As far as could be determined, there was no indication throughout the state of overemphasis in girls' interscholastic athletics.

The majority of schools which belong already to some

form of association do not favor a state-wide organization of junior high school interscholastic athletics. The majority of schools which are unorganized at present favor such a move and would make state control a part of the Ohio High School Athletic Association.

While it may be necessary to have some interscholastic athletics among junior high schools the emphasis should be upon intramural athletics. Football should be omitted or nearly so from junior high athletic programs.

The basketball season should be shortened and games played with pupils of the same age and grade. Encouragement should be given towards the so-called "minor" sports. Proper precaution should be taken to insure the health of all taking part.

42. Wilson, George W. *The Junior High School Idea in Washington County, Ohio.* June 1929. Pp. 74.

Problem. This study attempts to determine first whether or not the junior high school organization in Washington County would be desirable and feasible. If so, to set up material that would be of value to the superintendent of schools in getting the new organization started. The study was limited to Washington county and to the schools in the county system.

Source of Data. Data were taken from records of the county superintendent of schools and from data collected by Dr. T. C. Holy in a school survey of the county. Data were received also from the 16 school superintendents in the county.

Technique of Study. The historical and normative method of study were used. A survey was made of the present situation in Washington county through a study of records in the county office, and through a questionnaire sent to the superintendents. Advantages to be gained by the junior high school according to the best authorities on that phase of school work were outlined. Problems to be met in establishing a junior high school system in the county were discussed. On the basis of the findings a proposed program was given.

Findings and Conclusions. There are 16 high schools in Washington county. Eleven of these are first grade four year schools, one three year junior high school, and three second grade schools. Consolidation has been very slow in the county. There are 132 elementary schools, and 107 one-room schools. There is a decided need in Washington county high schools for a wider range of subjects in the curriculum, with more atten-

tion given to vocational subjects. There is a lack of school activities. Many of the schools do not have clubs. Many do not have assemblies. The following arguments are advanced in favor of organization of junior high schools in Washington county:

1. The work of the elementary schools as now constituted do not prepare for life activities.
 - (1) There is not enough new material offered in the 7th and 8th grades of the typical elementary school in the county.
 - (2) There are not enough extra curricular activities.
 - (3) There is not enough work of a practical nature.
2. A junior high organization would relieve the burden on the teacher of the one room rural schools.
3. In the 8-4 organization there is too much of a break between the elementary schools and the secondary schools.
4. The new organization will provide better teachers for the 3 grades.
5. The school system can be more nearly unified by grouping together children of the same mental and physical development.
6. The new organization will make possible the establishment of an efficient system of vocational and educational guidance.
7. The work would so interest pupils that they would want to remain in school longer.
8. Leading educational authorities favor junior high organization in rural communities.
9. It is easier to bring about the desired organization of the junior high schools than it is to change the old organization which has been so firmly set by tradition.

The following plan would be advisable: First, six year junior-senior high schools should be established because of the small enrollment and because of the present buildings in the county. Second, a consolidation of districts should be accomplished. In place of the 31 districts, 14 would be desirable. In the 31 districts now in the county there is a tax range of 7.65 mills to 19.25 mills. There is also a widely varying tax valuation. Consolidation would equalize this inequality. Third, three second grade high schools and two small first grade high schools should be discontinued. Fourth, in adopting the junior high school idea for Washington county an attempt should be made to achieve all the aims and objectives of the new institution but no school administrator should hesitate to adopt those characteristic features which will make his own school system more effective even if he cannot at first conform to somebody's arbitrary definition of such an institution. Fifth, education of the school boards, the superintendents, the principals, the pupils, and the community to the ideals and functions of the jun-

ior high schools should be the first step in a junior high program for the county. Sixth, most of the schools proposed in Washington county will not be able to measure up to the standards of the junior high school but the proposed organization will have many advantages over the present system. Seventh, with the establishment of the junior-senior high schools there will be a wider variety of courses offered, more attention given to individual differences, an adequate program of guidance based upon adequate records, and extra curricular activities.

Six-year high schools should be established at Vincent, Bartlett, Belpre, Beverly, Salem, Newport, New Matamoras, Lowell, Moss Run, Waterford, and Macksburg. These places all have four-year high schools now, except Beverly which has a six-year organization. Three year junior high schools should be established at Constitution, Ludlow, Little Hocking, Putnam, Watertown, and Reno. Second grade schools should be abandoned at Little Hocking, Dalzell, and Watertown, the first grade school at Bloomfield, and the three year junior high school at Sand Hill.

PART IX. STUDIES DEALING WITH INSTRUCTIONAL NEEDS, CURRICULUM TRENDS, AND THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

43. Collins, M. Earle. *A Survey of the Instructional Needs in Small Ohio High Schools and an Instructional Program on the Tutorial Plan.* June, 1930. Pp. 116.

Problem. The author of this thesis attempted to determine the small high schools of Ohio that might profitably use the tutorial plan of instruction as a means of reducing instructional cost and increase the curricular offerings.

Sources of Data. The data for this study were taken from the high school principal's annual reports to the state department of education of Ohio. These are kept on file by state department of education and ready access may be had to them. The reports for the school years, 1928-1929 and 1929-1930 were examined. Some twenty-eight hundred reports were examined.

Technique of Study. The historical phase is presented in the first chapter. The various chapters of the study describe plans and methods used elsewhere as well as some few counties

in Ohio that combine the features of a correspondence course and actual classroom instruction.

Findings and Conclusions. It was found from this study that there are forty-two counties, in which there are 577 high schools, that definitely need the tutorial plan; there are thirty counties, in which there are 301 high schools, that might use the tutorial plan in a few subjects; there are seven counties, in which there are sixty-three high schools, that have little need for the tutorial plan; and that there are only nine counties in which there are eighty-four high schools, that do not need the tutorial plan according to present data.

Some conclusions are drawn from the study which are as follows:

1. No county in the state should be omitted from possible future consideration in the formulation of a tutorial plan of instruction. Although the counties have been placed in groups according to their relative need for the tutorial plan, yet future data may reveal a very definite need for reclassification. Conditions may change within the county which would make it necessary to operate under the tutorial plan. The counties were classified so as to obtain a working basis where by to start tutorial work in those counties which needed the plan most according to present data and criteria. Constant survey of changed conditions in the county will have to be made in the future.
2. At present there are too many classes operating with only a few pupils enrolled. Eight hundred and sixty-four classes in Ohio enrolled five pupils or less during the two year period, 1928-29 and 1929-30. One hundred of these classes had only one or two pupils enrolled. The state department of education strongly recommends that no class enrolling five pupils or less be taught. The practice is much to the contrary of the recommendation. The tutorial plan will make possible the elimination of these small classes which operate at a high instructional cost per pupil.
3. There are teachers in Ohio who are instructing as many as eight classes per day. This is contrary to the rules and regulations of the North Central Association and the State Department of Education of Ohio. To teach seven or eight classes per day is almost a necessity in some of the small two or three teacher high schools. If some of these classes were taught on the tutorial plan, the regular teacher would be freed to spend

more time in the preparation of her five lessons. This would make possible better instruction for the ninth and tenth years of the high school.

4. It is estimated that the tutorial plan will save much in the annual instructional cost of small high schools in Ohio. One example will be given. The approximate subject-semester-cost of instruction in Ohio is one hundred and fifty dollars. To teach the one hundred classes of one or two pupils costs the state thirty thousand dollars annually. Assume that half of the classes have only one pupil. The one hundred and fifty pupils could be enrolled in five tutorial groups of thirty pupils each and taught at a cost of about fifteen hundred dollars per year. This would effect a saving of approximately twenty-eight thousand five hundred dollars per year in this one instance alone.

5. Present high school offerings are shown to be inadequate according to the survey. Pupils' subject needs are on the increase yearly. Many schools are able to offer only the old-line academic curriculum. This, we agree is insufficient. In many cases, the curricular offerings can be broadened only by the institution of the tutorial plan.

6. The tutorial setups for a county are very flexible and must be kept so in order to care for changing and varying conditions among counties. Some counties present a single center for the tutorial group; others necessitate a multiple centered organization. A fixed location for years to come, should not be established within a county. Conditions might arise which would make the selected center totally unsuitable for the tutorial meeting place. Subject needs are apt to vary over the county and this variation must be cared for in the flexibility of the organization within the county.

7. The cooperation of the county superintendents throughout the state has been a great inspiration to those working on the inauguration of the tutorial plan. Their expressions of appreciation have been encouraging. Their desire to put the plan in immediate operation in their county has furthered the tutorial plan in its beginning. We only wish for more counties to fall in line and remove the obstacles that now stand in the way of installing the tutorial plan.

8. The accurate and complete tutorial setup in a county cannot be made without a visit to the county under consideration. This was found to be true in Washington County. Local conditions relative to roads, school equipment and geographical

centers can not be determined fully without going into the county. The type of setup that might work for one county might not work for another. Much assistance can be given by the local superintendents in making out the local county organization.

Recommendations. In completion of the survey and the institution of an instructional program on the tutorial plan, we would like to make a few recommendations for the operation of the plan.

1. A standard nomenclature should be adopted by the state department of education for all courses offered in high schools. The present variance in the names given to courses is confusing to one making a survey of the kind given in this thesis. An example might be cited. A course taught to the twelfth year high school student during the latter half of the year, bears the following titles: (1) problems of American democracy; (2) American civics; (3) problems of citizenship; (4) American history; and (5) problems of American life. All of these titles were taken from the principals' annual reports. Standardization of names of courses is essential.

2. Investigation should be made of the schools in which teachers are still instructing seven or more classes. Some of these cases occur where the teacher has some junior high school subjects.

3. Many schools are offering the same subjects in consecutive years to only a few pupils each year. These subjects could be taught on alternate years. To eliminate this needless duplication of instruction would be a saving to the school and at the time make possible the offering of the other subjects which might be wanted. Subjects to be alternated in their offering might be suggested and presented to the schools for their consideration.

4. Pupils who plan to go on to school after completing high school constitute the only group that is being cared for in some of our high schools. In other words the high schools in some localities are still clinging to the traditional type of curriculum, the academic course alone. To such type of school does the tutorial plan offer its greatest benefits to the pupils.

5. No separate divisions of the state department of education is essential for the control and organization of the tutorial plan. The establishment of a special position in the department of education is not necessary. The following recom-

mentations set forth the delegation of duties involved to such an extent that the present staff of the department of education can care for the tutorial plan in its state-wide operation.

a. The responsibility of the pupil's selection of a course rests with the approval of the local superintendent. He determines the need of the pupil for the course chosen and is responsible for the recommendation of the pupil's ability to carry tutorial work.

b. The county superintendent makes the local survey of the county, and selects teachers under the approval of the supervisor of instruction of the state department of education.

c. The county superintendent in cooperation with the local superintendent determines the tutorial centers and sets up the organization of the plan.

d. Financial matters are cared for under the administration of the state aid fund in counties which are under state aid supervision. Counties which are non-state aid, make local agreements among the districts participating, under the supervision of the local county superintendent.

e. Courses of instruction are planned and constructed under the supervision of the state department of education cooperating with the college of education of Ohio State University.

f. Credit for the tutorial work is transferred from the local school district of the instructor to the school district of the pupil. Official transfer blanks bearing the state department's mark are sent through the county superintendent's office of the county participating.

g. Standard tests for progress and achievement measurement for all tutorial courses are to be constructed under the supervision of the testing division of the state department of education. They are to be administered locally on a date uniform over the entire State. Papers are to be marked by the local instructor of the tutorial group and kept on file in the office of the local county superintendent.

6. At present, only eleventh and twelfth year pupils are eligible to participate in the tutorial plan. As rapidly as it is found feasible to extend the privilege of enrollment in the tutorial plan to the lower years of school work, we should prepare for it.

44. Melkus, Franklin Weber. *A Study of the Programs of Study in the Larger High Schools of Ohio*. December, 1929, Pp. 432.

Problem. Briefly stated, the problem of this thesis is "A Study of the Programs of Study in the Larger Ohio High Schools." Due to some confusion in the use of terms the author defines "Programs of Study" as the sum total of the offerings in a school; "Curriculum" as the organization of certain courses of study leading to certain desirable ends; and "Courses" or "Courses of Study" as the organization of subject matter in some particular field.

Sources of Data. (a) Limitations. The study was limited to the high schools of Ohio of over 300 pupils but included all types of high schools, four-year, six-year, junior only and senior only. (b) Schools. Two hundred forty-four letters were sent out to as many schools requesting copies of their program of studies. Programs were received from 178 schools.

Technique of the Study. The schools were divided into three classes as follows:

Class A—Schools from 300 to 800.

(1) Group of four years schools.....44

Class B—Schools of more than 800.

(1) Four year16

(2) Six year21

(3) Junior only12

(4) Senior only9

58

Class C—Six large cities with city requirements.

	Junior	Senior	Total
(1) Canton	3	1	4
(2) Cleveland	19	13	32
(3) Columbus	12	5	17
(4) Cincinnati	5	5	10
(5) Dayton	4	4	8
(6) Toledo	1	4	5
Totals	44	32	76

After classification each group was taken up separately according to the stated divisions. Then each group was studied as to:

(1) Curricula

- a. Each different curriculum listed
- b. Noted if no organized curriculum was stated

- (2) Each group of curriculum studied for:
 - a. Required courses—length and frequency
 - b. Elective courses—length and frequency

There were four major aspects of the study:

- (1) Frequency and variety of curricula
- (2) Frequency and variety of courses of study
- (3) Outstanding peculiarities and similarities
- (4) Recommendations of seemingly feasible improvements

Curricula and courses of study were listed under the names given them by the schools and tables made showing what courses were required and which were elective. Then from these tables summaries were made and conclusions drawn. No account was taken of extracurricular activities unless they were required.

Findings and Conclusions. Chapter II shows the situation for Class A schools. There were 24 curricula found in this group, with frequencies varying from 1 to 36. The only one common to all 36 schools was the commercial curriculum. The next three in order of frequency were the college preparatory, general and scientific. In regard to courses, some 237 different ones are mentioned in this group of 36 schools. History and allied courses rank first with 41. English has the smallest number. English is the only course that is offered in every school.

Chapter III reveals the situation for the Class B schools, those of over 800 pupils except those of the six large cities. Of the 58 schools in this group 24 had no organized curricula. Those most frequently found, however, were commercial, college preparatory, general and scientific. The general curriculum was found in about 50 per cent of the schools as was also the case in the Class A schools. The author considers this surprising in schools as large and progressive as these.

In the four year group there are 16 schools which have (all told) 25 different curricula, the highest in order of frequency being commercial, college preparatory, general and vocational. In the six year group, 21 in number, there were 21 curricula, the four highest in the order of frequency being commercial (12), college preparatory (9), general (8), and scientific (6). The "junior only" group of 12 schools does not list separate curricula. The "senior only" group of nine schools has a total of 12 curricula. The commercial curriculum is first

with 100 per cent while the scientific and general come next with a frequency of 3.

The total frequency of all courses in Class B is 308. English is the only one required in all schools. More attention is paid in this class to the state requirements than in Class A. More courses in music and art are offered in this class than in Class A.

Chapter IV covers the situation disclosed in 76 schools in the six large cities, Canton, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo, Cincinnati, and Cleveland. Of these 33 are of the senior and 43 of the junior type. Only 16 different curricula are listed in the Class C schools although there are many more schools represented than in the other classes. Class C schools list a total of 272 courses. English is required in all schools. Languages are much more in evidence in this group and the state requirements are more rigidly adhered to.

In all schools 48 different curricula were found to exist with a total frequency of 608. The total number of courses found was 480. This looks like a very rich program of studies, but this is more apparent than real for often the only difference is in the title of the course. History and commercial subjects offer the greatest variety of courses. The total number of courses offered in Class A is 1804, Class B 2593, and Class C 4012. The grand total is 8409.

Three matters of general importance were brought out in this study. First, it would seem that there is a rich group of curricula offered, and yet when carefully examined it appears that there are not so many different curricula but simply a large variety of curricular titles for practically the same thing. In the curricula college dominance is quite noticeable especially in the Class B group. Second, it was noticeable that the guidance program was either lacking or very weak. Only 30 courses were found which could be construed as being of a guidance nature. Third in importance were the courses that are required and elective in the different curricula. Tradition has played an important part in many curricula. Extra-curricular activities were not generally stressed or rewarded and only 6 schools required them.

Recommendations. (a) **Programs of Study.** These should be so constructed as to serve these four groups: college preparatory, non-college, the pupil who does not expect to complete the high school term, and the pupil who does not seem to

fit anywhere. Instead of a great many curriculums there should be fewer, and more attention should be placed on guidance.

(b) Guidance. This should be carried out through "home room" programs. The program of study should be made up as follows and the pupil guided through it: (1) a core curriculum, (2) curriculum requirement; (3) related electives to the specialization desired, and (4) have the free electives limited in number.

(c) College Dominance and Tradition should cease to be a dominating factor in high school curricula and courses.

(d) More attention should be paid to the academic training of the vocational pupils according to their mental caliber.

(e) A uniform nomenclature is greatly needed.

(f) Too many unrelated electives should not be allowed.

(g) More attention should be given to the pupil who will not finish high school.

(h) The general curriculum should be removed or else made to form some other function than that of a "dumping ground" or "catch all".

(i) More attention should be given extra-curricular activities in the school program.

General Conclusions. That each school system make a study of its curricula and courses of study in order that the teaching staff be made to realize the condition of their program of study and the necessity of working together in the matter of educational guidance. Pupil guidance, the writer feels, is not given enough attention.

45. Stewart, John Wendell, *Curriculum Enrollment Trends in Ohio High Schools, 1912-1930.* June, 1931, Pp. 65.

Problem. The problem of this thesis is to discover and set forth the trends in curriculum enrollments in the Ohio High Schools during the period of 1912-1930. The high schools have been divided for this study into two classes: (1) the city group, made up of schools in cities of 5,000 population or more; and (2) the non-city group, made up of those schools in cities of less than 5,000 population, and rural schools. The subject offerings have been classified into seven subject groups: (1) English; (2) Mathematics; (3) Foreign Language; (4) Social Science; (5) Science; (6) Practical Arts; and (7) Physical Education and Hygiene. The study has been limited to enrollment trends and does not include subject matter trends.

Sources of Data. The sources of data were the Annual

Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Ohio from 1912-1921; and from 1921-1930 the high school principals reports to the State Superintendent of Education. Material was also taken from books on secondary education and from current periodicals.

Technique of the Study. To show the trends in enrollment in each of the subject offerings, tables are shown of each subject group giving percentages of enrollments found in each of the subject offerings. A table is shown giving the ratio of pupils enrolled in the academic courses to the pupils enrolled in the practical arts courses; this shows the trend of the shifts and the period of greatest shift. Graphs based on data obtained in this study, statistics gathered by the United States Office of Education, and on Koos' study of the Minnesota high schools, are shown giving a comparison of the trends in Ohio with the trends in the United States and with those in the State of Minnesota.

An attempt is made to summarize the influences that have been affecting these trends; to show what the general curriculum trends are; to show what trends the subject groups are taking; and to show the trends in the specific offerings of each subject group.

Findings and Conclusions: It is the belief of the author that there are two types of influences which have been affecting the curriculum. They are those which have come from within the school, and those exerted by environmental factors. Both of these, he asserts, are outcomes of our changing social order.

The secondary schools have gone through two evolutionary phases and are in the midst of the third. The first was the "Latin Grammar School" stage, which was characterized by a very restricted curriculum, aimed at preparation for college entrance. The second was the "Academy" stage which broadened its curriculum and added to its college entrance preparation aim, the broader aim of "preparation for life". The third was the "public high school" stage which began to achieve wide popularity about 1900, and has almost entirely supplanted the other types. It is coeducational and publicly supported. Emphasis has been put on the aim of preparation for the active duties of life.

The rapidly changing social order has produced conditions which have affected the curriculum. Educators have become

interested in a scientific appraisal of their curricula. The advent of an industrial civilization has brought a social order with new needs. Communities have become "education conscious" and have shown a new assertiveness and a more critical attitude. High school staffs are continuously working on curriculum revision. State Legislatures are taking greater interest in curriculum offerings and school attendance. Accrediting associations and college entrance requirements still influence the programs of high schools.

The general trends of curriculum changes have been the results of conditions necessitated by our industrial social order. There have been many changes in the high school offerings both in adding new courses and dropping old ones. More courses have been added and fewer dropped in the practical arts field than in the academic field. The total number of changes however, is greater in the academic field than in that of practical arts. There has been a great shift in enrollments from the academic courses to the practical arts courses, the greatest shift occurring just before 1915. A large increase in the total enrollment followed the passage of the Bing compulsory attendance law in 1921.

In the academic group, English seems to enroll 100 per cent of the pupils. Mathematics shows a tendency to decline in enrollment. Foreign languages show a small decline in the city high schools, and large declines in the non-city schools. Social science shows a gain in the city group, but a loss in the non-city group; and both decline in the last period of the study. Science shows an increase in the city high schools and a slight loss in the non-city group. The practical arts subjects group experienced great gains. The city schools group increased more rapidly than the non-city group. Physical education and hygiene showed an increase for period, 1918-21, and since has remained approximately stationary. About half of the pupils in the city group and about a third of those in the non-city group are enrolled in physical education and hygiene.

The following trends should be pointed out in the subject group offering: The English group shows little change since 1912. In mathematics, algebra and geometry have shown a decrease, especially in the non-city schools. This decrease was not successfully offset by the addition of arithmetic. In foreign languages, Latin has decreased, but more in the non-city groups. French and Spanish, which were introduced when

German disappeared, have not been able to hold their initial enrollments. French shows more drawing power than does Spanish. The social science group has witnessed many changes and shown many modernizing tendencies. The city group has shown a slight increase in total enrollment here, and the non-city group a slight decrease. In the Science group, physics has shown signs of loss, and chemistry of gain. General science and biology are just about holding their own and high school geography has shown a decrease. The commercial subjects have made advances, especially bookkeeping, typing, shorthand, business law and business arithmetic. Home economics has shown an increase, greater in the non-city group than in the city group. Art, with its small percentage of enrollment, has lost slightly. Manual training has increased its enrollment somewhat. Agriculture has lost seriously almost disappearing in the city groups. Many new offerings have appeared in the last six years or so, but their permanency can not be predicted as yet.

In conclusion, the author expresses the opinion that the tendency of educators to make scientific appraisals of their curriculum offerings, and the new social order produced by our industrial civilization, have brought about a more practical and popular program of education. There has been a distinct shift in enrollment to the practical arts subjects group. In the academic subjects group, many new courses have been added, and more have been discontinued. This corresponds to the findings of Counts for the schools of the United States for the five years previous to 1925. With the great shift to the practical arts subjects group, there are still more pupils enrolled in the academic subjects than in the arts course. This would indicate that withal the aim of preparing pupils for life activities, preparation for higher education is still a dominant factor. Although the total enrollment almost doubled following the passage of the compulsory attendance law of 1921, the percentage distribution in the various subject groups was little changed. The non-city schools have higher percentage enrollment in only two of the subject groups, social science and science. The city groups rank very high in practical arts enrollment. Both groups are very low in mathematics and foreign language enrollment. The fact that both groups are approaching similar percentage enrollments would seem to indicate that all the high schools are conforming to the standards of the State Department of Education. The Ohio High Schools show tendencies in

the academic subjects similar to those of Minnesota and of the United States. This would indicate that the aims and functions of the high schools of Ohio are similar to those of Minnesota, and the United States as a whole.

PART X. STUDIES DEALING WITH THE CONDITIONS AND NEEDS OF LIBRARIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

46. Harter, W. Harold. *A Study of the Rural High School Libraries in Ohio*. June, 1926. Pp. 136.

Problem. The problem of this investigation is to ascertain the real status of the rural high school library in the state of Ohio. The study is limited to rural high school libraries.

Sources of Data. The data for this study were taken from the reports to the state department of education by the executive heads of all high schools in the county districts, and by the principals of all city and exempted village high schools which were not included in the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the school year 1925-1926.

Findings and Conclusions. Schools with an enrollment of 50 or more pupils are quite adequately equipped. The majority of the schools have a special room for the library and some have librarians. Others have delegated these duties to teachers and pupils. Most of these schools have their books classified. Only a few have libraries open only three hours daily. Most of them have the libraries open five or more hours daily.

Most of the schools studied were better supplied with books in the fields of social science and English than in the fields of home economics and manual arts. Many of the schools are using encyclopedias more than twenty years old. Conditions in first grade high schools correlate very closely with those in the large high schools. Many of the small high schools, (fifty or less pupils), have inadequate library facilities. A large percentage of the small schools falls below the requirement in regard to the number of books per school. The library conditions in the second and third grade high schools correlate very highly with the findings in the small high schools.

47. Marsh, Charles Lehman. *The Conditions and Needs of High School Libraries in Ohio*. August, 1926. Pp. 98.

Problem. The problem considered in this thesis is to re-

port actual conditions found in high school libraries of the state and make appropriate recommendations.

Sources of Data. Magazine articles, texts, records of the state library and its field workers were examined. Suggested attainable standards and effective methods based on expert opinion and actual conditions and practices prevailing in some of the most efficient high school libraries in the state were used. Many interviews were held. The questionnaire was used in two cases.

Technique of the Study. A combination of the two methods historical, and normative has been used.

Findings and Conclusions. The first library in Ohio was a family library brought here by Colonel Israel Putnam in 1795. The first public library was opened in Cincinnati in the year 1802, thirteen years after the town was founded. In 1804 the famous coonskin library was originated in Ames, Ohio. In 1836, the general assembly recommended that authority be granted for the formation of school libraries. In 1853 a clause in a general school law created a fund to be used for the purchase of books for the libraries of schools. This plan failed because of the lack of provision for the care of the books or the centering of them in one general place. In 1864 there was a law passed authorizing the consolidation of these libraries but it was not very successful for by this time there was nothing left to consolidate. In 1867 towns and cities were authorized to raise money by taxation for the establishment and maintenance of libraries. In towns of 20,000 inhabitants the board of education appointed a library commission of three that had entire control of the library. In 1873 any village might levy a tax not exceeding one-tenth of a mill for creating a public library. Since this time a rapid growth has taken place until now we find many schools with their own libraries, and other schools in which there is a branch of the public library.

A change in the method of teaching necessitates a change in library facilities. What is known as the laboratory-library plan makes an adequate library a necessity. The school library must supplement the textbook method. The student is trained to know the probable sources of information, to consult bibliographies and guides to reading. There is a danger in going too far as we are instructing students whose interests are general rather than specific. In the senior high schools of Ohio we find the public libraries serving one hundred forty-

five city high schools and fifty-five rural and exempted village high schools. One thousand high schools, however, are dependent on their own resources for library service.

In 152 small high schools there is an average of 6.4 volumes per pupil; 144 have no trained librarian; in 75 the teacher works as librarian part time; 20 act as study hall monitor and librarian; 10 use students, and 59 schools have not delegated these duties to any one. Of the inspector's reports given certain data was found. In 61 cases facilities were reported as poor; 22 as good; 14 were using village or county libraries.

The selection of the books for the libraries has been dictated by teachers of the traditional curriculum. In the average library, free government bulletins are not utilized. Interest and circulation varies with library rooms and librarians. There is a predominance of history and English books in the library. Some schools leave the selection to the English department entirely. In small schools less than 33% report separate rooms for the library; less than half of these have adequate lighting, seating or other equipment.

Very little is done in the high school to instruct pupils in the use of books and libraries. Many high school students are not being taught to use effectively even such library resources as are available. One-half of the libraries are supplied with newspapers and magazines. Nearly all are supplied with encyclopedias and one good dictionary. The boys' interest in science has not been satisfied nor has the girls' interest in good reading material. Recreational and general culture needs of students have not been considered in one-third of the schools studied.

Some conditions conducive to effective results are found in small school libraries. Some of them are:

1. Supervised study.
2. A fully equipped library and a full time trained librarian.
3. Classes in which students can learn the use of library materials.
4. A well established system of attitudes resulting in good discipline.

Guidance in reading was suggested for high school students. Some of the reasons were:

1. Constant sound reading is one way to improve civilization.

2. It is a great privilege for the teacher to influence some boy or girl's reading.

3. The books on the required lists become school tasks.

4. Book lists are not always chosen with the student's interests in mind.

The needs of the high school libraries in Ohio are:

1. The general arousal of the teachers to an appreciation of the value of a library.

2. Teachers should transfer much of the energy now expended on textbooks in securing the effective use of the school library.

3. More library courses offered in the schools.

4. State aid for libraries in the weaker schools.

5. A separate room for the library.

6. A teacher-librarian in smaller schools, and a full time librarian in a school of 500 enrollment.

7. Give students free access to books.

8. The dead, unsuitable, or worn books should be removed.

Administrative problems connected with the library are:

1. Appropriate housing and equipment.

2. Professionally trained librarians.

3. Scientific service in the selection of books.

4. Instruction in the use of books and libraries for the students.

5. Adequate appropriation for salaries, maintenance of library, purchase of books, supplies and general upkeep.

6. A well balanced collection of books in the library.

7. The extended use of the library for all subjects.

PART XI. STUDIES DEALING WITH SOME MISCELLANEOUS PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

48. Findley, Walter G. *A Survey of Certain Aspects of Secondary Education in Tuscarawas County, Ohio, 1928-1929.* August, 1929. Pp. 94.

Problem. The study attempts to determine the present status of the secondary schools of Tuscarawas county, Ohio as to teaching staff, enrollment, adequacy of plant, laboratory equipment, libraries, program of studies, extra curricular activities, and finance.

Sources of Data. The data for this study were obtained

from (1) the records of the county superintendent of schools, (2) records of the state department of public instruction, (3) from questionnaires filled out by the teachers and principals of the county, (4) the author's own observations of the schools of the county.

The Technique of the Study. The technique of the study is both historical and descriptive, for it shows the development of the high school enrollment over a period of eight years, in addition to describing the conditions existing in the county schools at the time of the study.

Findings and Conclusions.

(1) **Pupil Population.** Tuscarawas County with a total population of 63,578 (1920 census) has nineteen high schools, fifteen first grade, (four-year); and four third grade, (two-year), distributed through all parts of the county, as shown on the map in the thesis. The pupils live at distances varying from a hundred yards to five miles from the high schools. The total enrollment for all high schools varied from 1694 pupils in 1920-21 to 2694 during the school year 1928-29, showing a steady increase each year with the exception of the period from 1924-25 to 1925-26. The enrollment by grades for 1928-29 was ninth 963, tenth 964, eleventh 529, twelfth 463, showing that 55.9% of those who enter the ninth grade are also enrolled in the twelfth. The largest school enrolled 693 pupils the smallest but nine.

(2) **The Teachers.** The one hundred eighteen teachers of the county were prepared in thirty-four colleges, universities and normal schools. Twenty-six of these institutions were located in Ohio. The largest number, sixteen were from Ohio State University, Muskingum College with ten ranked second, and sixteen institutions had but one representative each. The academic training of these teachers varied from two and one-half to six years, thirteen having less than four years training, sixty-seven (56.7%) of those reporting had the bachelor of arts degree, eighteen had the bachelor of science in education, four have the master of arts degree, and one principal and twelve teachers do not have a degree. Ninety-five and seven-tenths percent of all the teachers have had training in educational psychology, seventy-six and six-tenths percent in special methods, and sixty-five and two-tenths percent in school administration. Only eight of the entire number have less than fifteen hours of professional training, the median number of

hours is twenty-five and nine-tenths. The median number of years of teaching experience is 4.11 years, twenty-six teachers were teaching their first year, nineteen had but one year of experience, only 18.6% have taught over ten years. The teaching load varies from zero periods per day for two principals to eight forty-five minute periods. The medium number of periods for the principals is 3.83 per day, and for the whole group it is 5.88 periods. The number of different daily preparations varies from none to seven, with a medium of 3.3. Forty-nine and one-tenth percent of the teachers are teaching only the subjects for which they are prepared, fifty and nine-tenths percent are teaching at least one subject for which they have not had academic preparation, and nine and five-tenths percent are teaching entirely outside the field of their academic work.

Principals' salaries vary from a minimum of \$1200 per year to a maximum of \$3000 with a medium of \$2067; men teachers minimum \$1200, medium \$1817, maximum \$3000; women teachers minimum \$1100, medium \$1394, maximum \$2500.

(3) Building and Equipment. Tuscarawas county has \$2,656,000 invested in building and grounds used principally for high school purposes, two schools are in immediate need of building space, the rest are adequately housed.

Libraries—The number of books range from 113, to having the city library in the high school building; all libraries are classified and catalogued except one; two schools have trained librarians. The number of books per pupil ranges from 1.5 to 119. Twelve schools use the library as a study hall.

Laboratories—The laboratory space was capable of meeting the needs of the various schools. The equipment was checked against the minimum list of the Ohio high school standards for 1929 and found to be adequate. All of the nineteen schools, except one, are equipped to teach general science, seventeen biology, fifteen physics, and twelve chemistry.

Gymnasiums—All schools except one have gymnasiums, the playing floors range in size from 24 x 46 feet to 50x70 feet. Value of equipment ranges from \$50 to \$2000.

All schools except two have auditoriums, thirteen of the auditoriums are combined with the gymnasiums.

(4) Program of Studies. Range of subjects taught is somewhat limited. Fourteen schools (all under county supervision) have the same program of studies, two schools divide

the program into curricula, all are limited in scope, and probably do not meet the needs of the individual pupil.

(5) Supervision of Instruction. The city and village superintendents with the high school principals, or supervising principals in the county schools, are responsible for the supervision of instruction. The county superintendent of schools visits each county high school at least twice a year; he has no assistants. All principals except two teach classes; 46.8 per cent of the time of the composite principal is given over to administrative duties in addition to teaching. As he teaches from two to seven periods during the day, little time is left for supervision. Many of the duties of the principal could be very well performed by a competent clerk.

(6) Extra Curricular Activities. The inter-scholastic athletic program is limited largely to boys' activities. Eighteen schools have basketball, twelve baseball, seven track, five football, and five indoor baseball. There are seventy-seven organized activity groups in the county, only five schools require participation in some form. Twenty-one teachers out of the total of 118 have had some training in some form of extra-curricular activities. Assemblies are required of all pupils in all schools. Only one school has a school paper, but seven schools publish a year book. Student participation in school government is unknown.

(7) Finance. Per pupil costs in teachers' salaries vary from \$44.86 to \$144.64 per pupil per year.

(8) Recommendations. The author makes the following recommendations in regard to the certification of high school principals.

(a) Require three years of successful experience as a teacher.

(b) At the end of the three successful years of teaching experience, require one quarter of graduate work in school administration. Issue a four-year provisional principal's certificate.

(c) Convert this into a life certificate after three years of successful experience as a principal, and the obtaining by the candidate of the M. A. degree.

The pupil load and period load of teachers in Tuscarawas county should be more evenly distributed.

The larger schools pay the larger salaries. A consolidation of schools might lead to a better median salary.

A better program of inter-mural athletics is greatly needed.

A more varied course of study should be offered.

The extra-curricular program could be greatly expanded.

Most of the tuition charges are below cost and should be raised.

Teachers should be hired with a view to having them teach their major and minor subjects of specialization.

A program of consolidation should be carried out among the smaller schools of the county. The recommendations as to certification of principals of high schools refer to the state of Ohio, the remaining recommendations to Tuscarawas county.

49. Finsterwald, Herbert J. *Methods of Encouraging Scholarship in Exempted Village and City High Schools in Ohio*. August, 1929. Pp. 88.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to learn of the methods now being used by high schools throughout the state to encourage scholarship. Through the opinions of principals, and others in charge of such activities, it has been possible to form a conclusion as to the value of methods now being used. However, the major purpose has been to find out what Ohio High Schools are doing in addition to regular classroom work to encourage scholarship.

Sources of Data. The information was secured by a questionnaire so extensively planned as to include every possible activity tending to encourage scholarship as its major purpose. This questionnaire was sent to first grade high schools in exempted village and city high schools. The average size of the village school was 314 and that of the city was 687. Twenty questionnaires were returned from the former and forty-eight from the latter making a total of sixty-eight schools. These sixty-eight schools represent thirty-seven percent of the schools that received questionnaires.

The following type of schools returned the questionnaire:

	Exempted Village	City
3 year high schools	0	7
4 year high schools	14	28
6 year high schools	6	13

Technique of the Study. The teachers employed that had some part in extra-curricular activities were:

Place	No.	Per cent
Exempted village	106 men	55.7
Exempted village	174 women	49.4
City	645 men	41.1
City	942 women	37.2

Chapter two gives some data on honor societies and honor rolls. The National Honor Societies were first started in 1921. Of the principals whose schools have honor societies, 82.6 per cent claim that pupils strive for membership. Something over two percent of the pupils in schools are members.

Per cent	School	Kind
15.0	Exempted Rural	Local Honor Society
16.7	City	Local Honor Society
70.0	Exempted Rural	Publish Honor Rolls
79.2	City	Publish Honor Rolls

A grade of B or 90% in all subjects is generally required to become a member on the honor roll. Fifty-seven and seven-tenths percent of the schools publish honor rolls every six weeks.

Chapter three deals with scholarship clubs. These clubs are found in practically every department. In the majority of cases meetings are monthly or semi-monthly. Some meet weekly or at irregular intervals.

Chapter four takes up special awards. They may be classed as follows:

1. Special loan funds for honor pupils.
2. Names engraved upon loving cups that are retained by the school.
3. Names engraved upon wall plaques.
4. Scholarship letters.
5. Scholarship medals.
6. Scholarship pins.
7. Scholarship campaign (Central H. S. at Cleveland).
The campaign started with an introductory bulletin. This bulletin was followed by others in the form of challenges. This idea was worked principally through the home room. It raised the scholarship an average of one per cent per pupil.
8. State scholarship contests in which about one-third of the schools took part.

Findings and Conclusions. Chapter five gives the conclusions and recommendations. A list of the opinions of princi-

pals are given. With a few exceptions the principals agreed that honor scholarship promotes greater effort on the part of the pupil. The National Honor Societies are growing in Ohio. The local organizations are in many of the schools but not in as great a number as the former. The use of honor roll is found in 76.5 per cent of the schools. The most common practice of publishing honor rolls is by the school or local paper. Fifty-seven and seven-tenths per cent of the schools publish an honor roll every six weeks. Subject clubs with membership based on high scholarship are found in practically every department although not in the same school. Latin has more clubs based upon high scholastic standing than any other subject. Eleven and eight-tenths per cent of the schools have some kind of scholarship award. One exempted village school reports a scholarship fund of \$1200. The State Department of Education through cooperation of the state universities and state colleges during the past year has made a great move to promote scholarship.

Each high school in the state should try to do one or more of these things:

1. Establish a chapter of National Honor Society in the school.
 2. Organize a local honor society.
 3. Select and publish an honor roll.
 4. Create scholarship funds.
 5. Engrave names of pupils of high scholastic standing on loving cups and wall plaques.
 6. Organize clubs of high scholastic standing.
 7. Put scholarship on a higher level than athletics.
 8. Encourage participation in state scholarship contests.
 9. Plan special scholarship campaigns.
 10. Give sufficient recognition to pupils of high scholastic achievement.
50. Goldbach, Robert C. *A Study of the Causes of Transfer and Elimination of Pupils from the Senior High Schools of Cleveland, Ohio. First Semester 1930-31.* August, 1931. Pp. 89.

Problem. This study is made for the purpose of determining the number of pupils who were transferred and withdrawn from the Cleveland public senior high schools during the first semester of the school year 1930-31, and to determine

the cause of their transfer or withdrawal. The study is limited to the thirteen senior high schools of Cleveland. Only pupils enrolled in grades 10B to 12A inclusive, are considered.

Sources of the Data. The data for the study were secured from three sources:

- 1—Reports of transfers and withdrawals located in the files of the department of attendance of the Cleveland Board of Education.
- 2—Records of the several schools studied.
- 3—A questionnaire that was mailed to each withdrawn pupil.

Method of Study. The study is taken up under the following headings:

- 1—A study of the cases of transfer.
- 2—A study of the cases of withdrawal.
- 3—The effect of the rate of transfer and withdrawal upon the percentage of school attendance.
- 4—The relation of the P. L. R. to withdrawal from school.
- 5—A study of the questionnaire.

A Study of the Cases of Transfer. A transfer is defined as a pupil who changes from one school to another during the semester that school is in session. The transfers are considered in two groups; (1) those who transferred to schools located either in the suburbs or in other parts of the country and (2) those who transferred from one Cleveland high school to another. As to the first group the study disclosed that the migration from the Cleveland metropolitan area is small and that the two schools located in strictly residential districts of the city show a considerable migration of pupils to the suburbs. As to the second group, the study disclosed the following facts:

- 1—More boys than girls tend to be transferred from one Cleveland high school to another.
- 2—There is far more transferring from the special schools than from the academic or cosmopolitan.
- 3—The two technical schools vary greatly in their holding power, the one located on the east side of the city, transferring far more pupils than the one located on the west side.
- 4—There is evidence either of carelessness or irregularities on the part of some of the schools in the matter of filling out the transfer blanks.
- 5—With the exception of three schools the sorting process of

the first semester has a tendency to stabilize the pupil population of the schools during the second semester.

- 6—Moving or a desire on the part of the pupil to change his course of study is not the reason given for the transferring of approximately 45 percent of the cases of transfer.

A Study of the Cases of Withdrawal. This study includes 7 of the 13 senior high schools. The pupils considered in this chapter are those withdrawn from school on working permits and are between the ages of 16 and 18. The following conclusions are drawn:

- 1—The high schools are not uniform in the matter of reporting their withdrawals to the department of attendance of the Cleveland Board of Education.
- 2—There is a far greater tendency for girls to withdraw from school than boys.
- 3—One of the high schools withdraws pupils far in excess of the median for all of the schools or any other individual school.
- 4—The withdrawals are sharply reduced after the 11B grade.
- 5—Almost three-fourths of the total number of withdrawals occur at the age of 16.
- 6—Girls tend to withdraw in greater numbers at the age of 16 than do boys.
- 7—Overageness can not be considered as an important factor in the matter of withdrawal.
- 8—There is a marked tendency for schools to withdraw pupils who are of the proper age for their grade, or pupils who are ahead of their grade in school.

The Relation of the Percent of Transfers and Withdrawals to the Percentage of School Attendance. In this chapter the attendance record of each school for the months of the first semester is compared to the percents of transfers and withdrawals from each school. The findings in this chapter show that there is a very marked improvement in the attendance percentage of those schools which transfer and withdraw the largest percents of their school enrollment. It also is shown that where the percent of transfers and withdrawals is small these schools do not make any noticeable improvement in their percentage of attendance.

The Relation of the P. L. R. to Withdrawal from School. The data shows that 61 pupils out of the 560 studied had no Pupil Learning Rate. In this chapter the P. L. R.'s are studied

as a group and according to schools. The group is compared to the median P. L. R. of 100 according to schools. The chapter also considers a comparison of the withdrawals and incoming pupils as to the P. L. R. The findings are as follows:

- 1—The median P. L. R. of the withdrawing pupils is 96.3 as compared to the median P. L. R. of 100.
- 2—The median P. L. R. of pupils withdrawn from 6 of the 7 schools studied is below the median P. L. R. of 100.
- 3—The median P. L. R. of 143 pupils withdrawn from one school is 100.73 as compared to the median P. L. R. of 100.
- 4—All of the schools studied withdrew pupils of lower P. L. R. than the pupils that they received into the 10B grade in February, 1931.
- 5—Ten and nine-tenths percent of the 560 withdrawals had a P. L. R. of 110 or higher.

The Questionnaire. The questionnaire was sent to a total of 560 pupils withdrawing on working permits. A total of 266 or 47.5 percent of replies were received. The results are as follows:

- 1—Illness in the home has very little bearing upon withdrawal from school.
- 2—Death in the home caused very few pupils to leave school.
- 3—The financial status of the home is the main reason given by pupils for their withdrawal from school.
- 4—Pupils are not forced to take studies in which they are not interested.
- 5—The number of pupils who leave school because of difficulty with a teacher is very small.
- 6—Many pupils are embarrassed by the cost of the social program of the school and in some cases this cost is one of the main factors in causing the pupil to withdraw.
- 7—Inability to dress in a manner conforming to the standard set by the pupils of the school tends to prevent pupils from becoming a part in the social life of the school.
- 8—Pupils are not advised to leave school by the administration because they are absent excessively.
- 9—Only a few withdrawals come from homes broken by death or divorce.
- 10—There is a marked tendency for pupils coming from large families to withdraw from school.
- 11—There is a marked tendency for those pupils who are the

oldest or next to the oldest in the family to withdraw from school.

- 12—There is a greater tendency for pupils to withdraw from school where some language other than English is spoken in the home.
- 13—The counseling program of the schools evidently does not extend to the pupils who withdraw.
- 14—Absence from school is prevalent in 56.2 percent of the cases who withdraw.

51. Hatton, Otis C. *The Distribution of High Schools in the County Districts of Ohio*. August, 1927. Pp. 76.

Problem. The object of this investigation was to make a study of the location, size, type and grade of all the high schools in Ohio, under county supervision, and the preparation of a map showing the distribution of these county high schools.

Sources of Data. The material used in the preparation of the thesis was obtained from the reports of the high school principals of the state to the department of public instruction, Ohio educational directory 1925-26, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletins, Howe's Historical Collections of Ohio, the state highway map, and from a letter sent to the eighty-eight county superintendents, in which each superintendent was asked to show on the map of county (which was inclosed with the letter), the location of his own county high schools. The maps used were furnished by the state highway department of Ohio.

Technique of the Study. The technique of the study is both historical and descriptive.

Findings and Conclusions. Chapter I gives a brief historical sketch of the development of secondary education in the United States, 1890, 2,526 public high schools and 202,963 pupils to 1924, 11,827 public high schools and 2,538,381 pupils.

Chapter II continues the historical sketch with reference to the state of Ohio. The first law for tax supported schools was enacted in 1821. Early secondary education was confined to the private academies many of which sprang up in the state during the period 1802-1838. The first public high schools were established in Cincinnati in 1845, and in Columbus in 1850.

Chapter III considers the present status of secondary education in Ohio, (1925-26) with 1262 high schools in the state, 178 in cities (population over 5000), thirty-nine in exempted villages (population 3000), and 1045 in the county dis-

tricts. These high schools may be one of three types, standard four year high school, senior high schools, or six-year (senior-junior type). All junior high schools (7th, 8th, and 9th grades) are disregarded as there is a very small number of them in the county districts. The 1045 county high schools are classified by the state department of education as being first, second, or third grade. All first grade high schools must offer four years of work and require that much for graduation, the second grade three years, and the third grade two years. There are 794 first grade high schools, 155 second grade, 82 third grade, and 14 unclassified, the unclassified being the schools in a state of transition which had not been inspected. The high school teachers including the executive heads are distributed as follows: city 6983, villages 512, county 4262; the pupil enrollment, city 161,564, village 12,408, county 80,775; the arithmetical mean of pupil enrollment would be, city schools 934, village 318, county 77, and for all divisions per school, 443. These figures are taken from the average number of pupils reported per school. The pupil teacher load for cities was 23.1, for villages 24.2, and for county schools 18.9. The average size of teaching force is cities 39.2, village 13.2, county 4.1.

Chapter IV contains a map of Ohio showing the distribution of the county schools. This map shows that if a line is drawn across the state from the northeast to the southwest corner, that part of the state to the south and east contains the most high schools, although the part to the north and west has the bulk of the population, the large cities, and the best farm lands. The high schools are shown on the map in the proper location by a set of symbols, those with an average attendance of from one to twenty [18], twenty-one to fifty (31), fifty-one to one hundred $\triangle 62$, over one hundred $\diamond 210$.

Chapter V is devoted to tables showing the number and size of high schools by counties, and the relative distance that the schools are from each other, twenty full page tables being required to give this information for the eighty-eight counties. The high schools vary in size from less than twenty pupils to slightly over 200 pupils. The distances between the nearest adjacent high schools vary from less than a half mile to fifteen miles, the larger number being from two and one-tenth to six miles apart.

Chapter VI is devoted to a comparison of population and school enrollment figures between the city and county districts. The population in the cities, 3,443,566 is much larger than in the county districts 1,975,758, while the small number of city high schools is of course explained by their much larger enrollment. Tables showing the distribution of small high schools by county and by number, indicate that many counties are still maintaining high schools with less than fifty-one pupils, this is especially true of the counties of Geauga, Guernsey, and Meigs.

Chapter VII makes the conclusion that many of the smaller high schools could be combined very profitably, at least from an educational standpoint, and with the completion of more miles of hard surface roads, the case for complete consolidation will be greatly strengthened. The study is concluded by the author proposing a plan for the consolidation of the schools of Union County, Ohio.

52. Lotz, Jacob Wesley. *A Partial Index of Relative Educational Advantage of the Ten Rural High Schools in Hardin County, Ohio*. August, 1929. Pp. 88.

Problem. The general purpose of this study is to discover the relationship between the size of school and the efficiency of rural high schools in Hardin County, Ohio. The specific purpose of the study is four-fold, namely; (1) to select educational factors in the schools which are measurable and for which authentic data are available, (2) to develop a method of measurement, (3) to apply the measure to the ten rural high schools of the county, and (4) to show the correlation between size of school and efficiency.

We believe that certain factors such as training of teachers, pupil-teacher ratio, and costs are strong determinants in school efficiency. Assuming that they are chief among the factors, our next problem is to determine the degree in which each bears upon the education of the child. The writer has selected factors which accepted high school standards tend to stress. The liberty is taken to establish a method of measurement for this study. The factors are:

1. Average Instruction Cost.
2. Length of School Term.
3. Percentage of Attendance.
4. The Pupil-Teacher Ratio.
5. The Curriculum Offering.

6. The Training of Teachers.
7. Teacher Specialization.
8. Ratio of Graduates to Freshmen.

Sources of Data. The most reliable sources at our disposal are the records kept by local, county, and state school officials. Only such information as was available in permanent records was used. Information used in this study is taken from permanent office records of the State Director of Education, the Hardin County Superintendent of Schools, Hardin County Auditor of Public Accounts, local superintendents of schools, and clerks of local boards of education.

Technique of the Study. The technique used in formulating this thesis was the historical method. The records of the local and county superintendents were surveyed along with records of the state department of education, and the county auditor's books.

Findings and Conclusions. The average instructional cost for Hardin County schools from 1924 to 1929 was \$1,299.91, or 77 per cent of \$1,688.20, the approximate average of the State of Ohio for the same period of time. Three schools exceeded the county average for this period, namely, Alger, Blanchard, Washington, and Mount Victory. McGuffey showed a constant average, while the remaining schools showed a percentage below the county average, Forest and Roundhead approaching within 1, and 6 per cent, respectively. The average length of school term in the county is 8.6 months. All schools exceeded this average except Alger, Dudley, McGuffey, and Forest, the latter having a term length equal to the county average. Percentage of attendance in the county averages 91 per cent. The schools standing high and above this average assume this order: Forest, Mount Victory, Ada, Alger, and Ridgeway. The remaining schools stand below this average. The ratio of pupils to teachers in the county averages 80 per cent, or 16 to 1. Dudley, Forest, and Washington show lower ratios, while all other schools stand above. The percentage of courses taught averages 20.4, or 60 per cent in the county. The schools exceeding this ratio and approaching the 34 courses standard are: Ada, Forest, and Alger. The remaining schools rank far below, with an average of 50.4 per cent courses of the standard offered.

The number of years' training of teachers averages 3.95 in the average school of the county, or a percentage of 77.

Blanchard, McGuffey, Alger, Washington, Forest, Ada, Mount Victory, and Ridgeway stand above this average. Dudley, and Roundhead stand below, the former not approaching within average distance of the county. The percentage of subjects taught in the schools of the county by teachers with special training is 67 per cent of a possible 100. Ada and Ridgeway show a majority of their courses so taught, while Alger, Washington, Forest, and McGuffey each show more than 70 per cent of their subjects taught by specialists. The balance of the schools, Blanchard, Dudley, Mount Victory, and Roundhead average 53.5 per cent of their courses taught by specialists.

During the five-year period the following instances of extreme comparison occurred in Hardin County schools: Alger showed the highest instructional cost, while Dudley showed the lowest. Ada, Blanchard, Mount Victory, Ridgeway, and Washington had equal length of school term, while Alger had the shortest. Forest had the highest percentage of attendance, while McGuffey had the lowest. Ada and Alger have the highest Pupil-Teacher Ratio, while Dudley has the lowest. Ada offered the greatest number of courses, while Blanchard and Dudley offered the lowest. Blanchard and McGuffey have the highest number of years' training, while Dudley and Roundhead have the least. Ada has the greatest number of courses taught by specialists, while Dudley and Mount Victory have the least. Forest graduates the greatest number of freshmen entering, while Roundhead, Mount Victory, and McGuffey graduate the smallest per cent.

According to these factors, schools of Hardin County have been practically at a standstill since 1924. The relative progress made during the period 1924-1929 amounted to three-tenths of one per cent. Accordingly, several of the schools showed progress in this order: McGuffey, Ada, Washington, and Alger; while the remaining schools show a decrease as follows: Mount Victory, Dudley, Forest, and Roundhead. Ada, Alger, and Forest stood high at the beginning of the period, the first showing no average decrease in efficiency, while the latter suffered a slight decrease. McGuffey stands out as the only school in the group not suffering a decrease in efficiency in any one year. The index further shows that in the closing year of the period the schools averaged an increase in efficiency of one per cent over the five-year period. Several schools made marked progress during the year, namely, Ada, McGuffey, Ridgeway, Roundhead, and Washington. Forest's

standing remained constant, while Alger, Blanchard, Dudley, and Mount Victory decreased in efficiency.

The study shows that the eight factors have a bearing upon educational efficiency in the following order: (1) number of courses offered; (2) number of courses taught by teachers with special training; (3) ratio of number of graduates to freshmen; (4) ratio of pupils to teachers; (5) percentage of attendance; (6) length of school term; (7) amount of training of teachers; and (8) average annual cost of instruction. The first five show a high positive relationship to efficiency, while the length of school term has a low positive relationship and, therefore, less bearing upon efficiency; while the last two factors as here listed have a negative and imperfect relationship to efficiency and, therefore, play the smallest part in the determination of the efficiency standing of the schools.

Finally, the index shows that as the size of the school increases the efficiency increases. Evidence of this is shown in the following table in which the two variables of each of the five largest schools stand parallel, namely, Ada, Forest, Alger, Blanchard and Washington.

The schools of this study, all located in Hardin County, are:

School—	Five Year Average Enrollment	School—	Five Year Average Enrollment
Ada -----	237	McGuffey -----	59
Alger -----	91	Mount Victory -----	64
Blanchard -----	86	Ridgeway -----	71
Dudley -----	16	Roundhead -----	72
Forest -----	128	Washington -----	75

53. Severs, Jacob Dugan. *To What Extent Are Pupils Sixteen and Seventeen Years of Age Forced to Remain in School by Operation of the Bing Law.* August, 1931. Pp. 115.

Problem. The problem investigated here grew out of certain criticisms of the Bing Law which requires attendance at school until the age of eighteen or completion of high school. Most of these criticisms seem to imply that many children are being forced to remain in school because of the operation of the law. This implication constitutes the specific problem of the study. The Bing Law contains a provision that sixteen and seventeen-year-old pupils may, by obtaining age and schooling certificates, be relieved from further attendance at school. The author selected this group as a proper group from which to get an expression concerning school attendance. This

study is based upon the expression of a representative number of pupils of these two ages.

Sources of Data. The source of data upon which the study was made was a set of questionnaires answered by the pupils in grades ten, eleven, and twelve, in North, Central and South High Schools in Columbus. Of all these questionnaires, only those were used in the study which were filled out by pupils sixteen and seventeen years of age. These numbered 950 boys, and 942 girls, a total of 1892 pupils.

The questionnaire was constructed with the hope of accomplishing two objectives: first, the classification of those replying to it into three groups, (1) those who attend school because they like to, (2) those who attend school because their parents want them to, and (3) those who attend school because their parents and the law compel them to; and second, to learn (1) the reasons pupils have for remaining in school, (2) the reasons pupils have for wanting to quit school, and (3) those phases of home environment that might reasonably influence the desire of pupils of this age to remain in or withdraw from school.

The questionnaire was administered through home room teachers, under the best conditions attainable. Pupils were asked to answer questions sincerely and conscientiously with the hope that the information furnished would help improve conditions under which pupils of their age might attend school in the future.

Findings and Conclusions. The first phase of the study from the questionnaires had to do with an analysis of four phases of the home and school life of the pupil. They were: (1) the marital condition of the parents; (2) the educational attainments of parents; (3) with whom the pupil lives; and (4) the size of the family. The marital conditions indicate a "very high percentage of normalcy." The educational attainments of parents is "quite commendable". Seventy-five per cent of the families have fewer than five children. The group of pupils is progressing "exceptionally well" in school work. All of these phases show conditions highly favorable toward willing school attendance, and little evidence that attendance is forced for a large number of pupils.

The author next directed his study to the general attitudes of pupils toward attending school. The results showed 80 per cent liking school, 72 per cent liking their teachers, and

87 per cent liking their course of study. Eighty-four per cent would not quit school if jobs were available, 90 per cent would not be permitted to quit by their parents; 97 per cent wish to be graduated from high school, 93 per cent expect to be. Such statistics show a very favorable attitude toward obtaining an education, and very little evidence of the pupils being forced to remain in school.

A further analysis of home conditions shows 75 per cent of the fathers and mothers of those pupils who indicated a liking for school to be living together. This condition and the commendable scholastic attainment of the parents show strong home influence toward educational progress. An examination of the condition of pupils who indicated they were in school because their parents wished them to be emphasized the realization of parents that economic and social conditions necessitate at least a high school education if possible. However, practically all of the pupils in this group indicated that they would be in school regardless of the compulsory attendance law. Those who are forced to work are exempt from school attendance under the operation of the Bing law. The pupils who indicated that they were in school because their parents would not permit them to quit were for the most part also in the group which liked school. This study of home conditions shows little, if any reason for believing that the Bing law is forcing large numbers of children to attend school.

An examination of the reasons for being in school or for quitting school showed 95 per cent giving acceptable reasons for remaining in school. Only 2 per cent of the 1892 pupils indicated that any degree of compulsion was being administered to keep them in school. Of those who expressed a desire to quit school, the reasons were largely the necessity for work and the dislike for school. To attribute the attendance of all of these to the operation of the Bing law would add little if any weight to the contention that great numbers of pupils are being forced to remain in school. The study concludes that the more direct causes of continued attendance are, perhaps, the increasing social and economic demands for an education by our modern variety.

54. Timmons, Pryor B. *The Geographical and Vocational Distribution of the Graduates of Representative Small Ohio High Schools*. August, 1931, Pp. 115.

In order to determine to what extent the small high

schools have contributed to urban population and to the vocations and professions, the writer studied the residence, vocations of parents, post-high school training, and vocations of the graduates of fifteen high schools in the county districts of Ohio. Included in the study are all of the high schools of Ross County which had become established as first-grade schools prior to 1928. The following additional county high schools were included in the survey:

Adena.....	Jefferson County
Derby.....	Pickaway County
Holland.....	Lucas County
Mount Orab.....	Brown County
New Holland.....	Pickaway County

Through the courtesy of the superintendents of these schools, booklets were sent to the presidents of the alumni associations or to interested graduates who had lived the greater part of their lives in their respective communities. From permanent school records, from members of the alumni associations, and from relatives and friends of graduates, these representatives collected more than 20,000 items of information regarding the 3328 graduates of the fifteen schools. This information was all tabulated, and forms the basis of the study.

All of the schools except one are located in villages ranging in population from 142 to 1286. The village represented by the latter number is the only one in the study whose population is more than 1000. The total population of the villages is 7603, or an average of 543.

From the United States Census Reports it was found that the population of the rural and village districts which support these schools remained practically stationary during the forty years from 1890 to 1930, although the strictly rural districts decreased seventeen per cent in population.

The total enrollment of the fifteen schools in 1930-1931 was 1423, an average of 95 in each school. In 1915-1916 the enrollment was 538, or only 26% of the enrollment fifteen years later.

The first year in which a class was graduated was 1885. Two years later three more schools had graduates. Only six schools were graduating classes by 1890, and ten by 1900. No more schools had been added to the list in 1910, and it was not until 1920 that all fifteen schools were included.

The enrollment of the combined classes in the study was quadrupled in the period from 1900 to 1930, and was approximately doubled in the ten years from 1921 to 1930, inclusive. The largest school enrollment was 244 in 1930, which included a junior high school, and the smallest was thirty-five. The latter school had the same number enrolled in 1915. The total combined class enrollment did not reach 100 until 1920, when 102 pupils were graduated in the fifteen schools. More pupils have been graduated during the past ten years than were graduated during the first thirty-six years of the schools' histories. The largest combined class group consisted of 208 members, in 1928. The average number of graduates in each of the 428 classes is about eight.

With the exception of two districts, those including Holland and Adena, whose population has grown rapidly, perhaps because of proximity to Toledo and Steubenville, respectively, a population of seventeen per cent less is supporting five more high schools than in 1900, and an enrollment of five times that of 1900.

Fifty-seven per cent of the 3328 graduates were girls, and 43% were boys. Girls have predominated in the combined class enrollment of each year except five.

One hundred seventy of the graduates have died, 76 having been boys, and 94 girls. Based on the number of each sex graduated, the percent of deaths has been slightly greater among the boys than among the girls. There have been more deaths among the 468 graduates of the first nineteen years than among the 2860 of the last twenty-seven.

Of the 3328 graduates, 1320, or 39%, entered some institution of higher learning, although not quite one-half of those who entered were subsequently graduated. A slightly greater per cent of boys than of girls who entered these institutions were graduated. Only 46% of the number reared on farms now live on farms or in the country, 1951 having been reared on farms, and 912 now living on them or in the country. More than one-half of the graduates leave their home communities. Six hundred eighty-three of the 3328 graduates, or 20.5% live in villages of less than 1000 population; 227, or 6.8%, are in small cities under 10,000; 452, or 13.6%, are in larger cities under 100,000; 651, or 18.7%, live in cities between 100,000 and 500,000, while 119, or 3.5%, live in cities of more than a half-million population. Columbus, Ohio, is the resi-

dence of 296 of the graduates, more than eight per cent of the whole number.

Large numbers of the graduates live at distances greater than 100 miles from home; 66 live at distances between 500 and 1000 miles; and 69 live at distances more than 1000 miles away. One graduate is in Africa, and two in Hawaii.

The graduates are engaged in 176 vocations, while the parents were employed in 118. Only 370 graduates, 288 of whom are farmers, chose the vocations of their parents. These 370 are included in 25 vocations, although all but forty-one of them are listed in only four of the twenty-five vocations.

Three hundred eighty-two, or 12%, of the graduates are teachers, while only ten, or .3%, are ministers.

Conclusions. The graduates of these small high schools have to a great extent gone to the cities, and have entered into practically all of the leading vocations. If the future graduates of all of the high schools of Ohio were to enter the professions in the same ratio as have the rural graduates studied in this survey, in ten years there would be a tremendous oversupply in practically all of the professions. The number of teachers, for instance, would be increased 57,300, whereas in 1930-1931 there were only 43,029 teachers in Ohio. Vocational guidance for the boys and girls of the rural districts is therefore strongly recommended, with a program of education for pupils which will fit them for ample and complete living in their own communities.

DEPARTMENT MATTERS

National Honor Society

Over ten years ago the Department of Secondary-School Principals (then the National Association of Secondary-School Principals) organized the National Honor Society with the end in view of stimulating scholarship in the secondary schools of the United States. Today there are over one thousand chapters and these are in the best high schools in the country. The four objectives of the society are: to create an enthusiasm for scholarship, to stimulate a desire to render service to promote worthy leadership, and to encourage the development of character. Every high-school principal who has a chapter is enthusiastic over the productive results of this organization in his school.

Direct all requests for literature to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

WARNING

The National Honor Society has met with such great success that imitations are springing up in different parts of the country. These pseudo honor societies seem to have largely a commercial objective, and plan to exploit scholarship for financial ends. Members of our department are warned to beware of any plan to sell pins or emblems to pupils under the guise of scholarship, and are urged not to lend their aid or influence to such organizations.

The Department of Secondary-School Principals recommends only the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society.

The National Junior Honor Society

The National Junior Honor Society is patterned very closely after the Senior Honor Society. The Junior Society is designed for ninth and tenth grades in four year high schools, and for eighth, ninth, and tenth grades in junior high schools. This organization is now a going concern, and already there are a number of chapters, both in senior high schools and junior high schools. The national constitution, the model constitution, and booklet of information as well as the application blank will be sent on request.

Direct all applications to:

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

SEALS AND MEMBERSHIP CARDS

Membership Cards—Since the organization of the National Honor Society there has been a growing demand for membership cards in the organization. Cards of membership both for members of the National Honor Society and for the members of the National Junior Honor Society are now on sale. The cards ($2\frac{1}{2}$ "x $3\frac{3}{4}$ "") are engrossed on a fine quality of cardboard, have the emblem of the Society embossed upon them, and require only the insertion of the name of the member.

The price of the cards is five cents apiece.

Seals—The Seal ($1\frac{1}{4}$ "x $1\frac{1}{2}$ "") is a gilt embossed sticker to be affixed on the diplomas of members of chapters. A replica of the emblem is embossed on the seal.

The price of the seals is five cents apiece.

Plaques—A bronze wall plaque has been designed and manufactured. Schools that have chapters of the National Honor Society will now have the opportunity of having this plaque. It consists of a solid bronze casting mounted on a walnut back. The size is thirteen by sixteen inches and the weight is ten pounds. A chain is furnished. All lettering, as well as the name of the school chapter and the emblem, is raised and polished above the bronze background.

The price is \$30.00, which includes transportation and packing.

Order only from:

H. V. Church
3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

National Honor Membership Certificates

In response to repeated demands, the Department of Secondary-School Principals has prepared membership certificates 8½x11 for members of the National Honor Society. These certificates are lithographed on artificial parchment with the die of a facsimile of the emblem stamped in gold. They sell for ten cents apiece postpaid.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The publications below are sent postpaid. In lots of ten or more of the same issue a reduction of ten per cent is granted, and the shipment is by express collect.

PUBLICATIONS

First Yearbook, 1917, Kansas City.

Papers on Student Government, Cardinal Principles, Supervised Student Activities, Supervised Study, Measurement Tests, Credit for Quality, and Relations between High Schools and Colleges. (87 pp.).....\$2.00

Second Yearbook, 1918, Atlantic City.

Papers on The All-Year Schools, Administration, Physical Education, Military Training, Social Life, Junior High-School Curriculum, and the Place of the Junior College (66 pp.).....\$2.00

Third Yearbook, 1919, Chicago.

Papers on Student Government, Cardinal Principles, Democracy and High School, Social Science, Curriculums, Homogeneous Groupings, and the Social Recitation (87 pp.).....\$2.00

Fourth Yearbook, 1920, Cleveland.

Papers on Training for Leadership, Technique in Teaching, Program of Small High School, Continuation Schools, Social Studies, High School Principals, Homogeneous Grouping, and Co-operative Courses. (114 pp.).....\$2.00

Fifth Yearbook, 1921, Atlantic City.

Papers on Pupils with Less Than Average Ability, Moral Education, Character Education, the Principals' Duties and Intelligence Tests, (69 pp.).....\$2.00

Sixth Yearbook,—(out of print)—

Seventh Yearbook, 1923, Cleveland.

Papers on Guidance, Rating of Pupils, Moral Training, Sex-Social Training, Finances (2)*, Curricula (4), Social Life, Platoon Plan, Student Activities, Cardinal Objectives, Physical Education, Deans of Girls (4), Compulsory Education, and Supervision. (150 pp.).....\$2.00

Eighth Yearbook, 1924, Chicago.

Papers on Retention, Student Activities, Adjustment of Curriculum to Pupils, Faculty Meetings, the Small High School, Teacher Development, Finances (3), Social Science (4), and Deans of Girls (5). *Junior High School: Curriculum (4) and Guidance, Junior College: in California, Co-ordination of High School, and Place of.* (221 pp.).....\$2.00

Ninth Yearbook, 1925, Cincinnati.

Papers Guidance (4), International Relations (3), Rural High Schools, Administration, College Relations, Curriculum (2), Physical Education, High-School Principals, Scholarship, Junior High School (3), Ability Grouping, and Teacher Training. (207 pp.).....\$2.00

Bulletin No. 10, January, 1926.

Abstract of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (32 pp.).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 11, Tenth Yearbook, 1926, Washington.

Papers on Social studies (2), International Relations (2), Record Forms, Fraternities, Scholarship, Administration (5), Curriculum (3), Personnel Charts, Guidance, Marks (2), Principals, Student Activities (2), National Honor Society (5) and Culture. (259 pp.).....\$2.00

Bulletin No. 12, May, 1926.

Abstracts of Books and Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. List of, and Rituals of Induction to Chapters of the National Honor Society. (46 pp.).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 13, October, 1926.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (20 pp.).....\$.25

Bulletin No. 14, January, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (28 pp.).....\$.25

*Figures show number of papers.

Bulletin No. 15, Proceedings of the St. Louis (1927) Meeting.

Papers on Modern Youth, Curriculum (4), School Achievement, Physical Training, Size of Class, Junior High School Curriculum (2), Six-Year High School, Chaos in Secondary Education, High-School Publications, Place of the Junior College, Improving Teachers in Service, Pupils of limited Ability, and Tests. (251 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 16, April, 1927.

Directory of Members. (106 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 17, May, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (29 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 18, October, 1927.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. (26 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 19, January, 1928.

Report of the Committee on Guidance in Secondary Schools. (94 pp.)\$.60

Bulletin No. 20. Proceedings of the Boston (1928) Meeting.

Papers on Education in Russia, In India, Internationalism (3), Small High Schools, Character Training, Specialist in Secondary Education, the Visiting Teacher, Rating of Teachers, Curriculum (2), Business and High Schools, Supervision (4), and Guidance (2). (206 pp.)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 21, April, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (31 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 22, May, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (24 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 23, October, 1928.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (16 pp.)\$.25

Bulletin No. 24, January, 1929.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Chicago. Also a Directory of Members. (202 p.)\$1.00

Bulletin No. 25, Proceedings of the Cleveland (1929) Meeting.

Papers on Supervision (7), Curriculum, Articulation, Training Pupils to Study (2), Selection, Guidance, Use of the plant, Commercial Education, and Surplusage of Teachers. *Junior High School*: Schools of Ohio, Schedule Planning, Character Training, Teacher Training, Individual Differences, Electives, Short Unit Courses, Vocational Training, and Obligations of Junior to Senior High School. *Junior College*: Function of, Criteria for, Relation to University, Present Status, Service to Community, Orientation Program, Duplication of Courses, and Future of Junior Colleges (pp. 389)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 26, April, 1929.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. Constitution of National Junior Honor Society. (pp. 35)\$.25

Bulletin No. 27, May, 1929.

Rituals of Induction for the National Honor Society (pp. 32)\$.25

Bulletin No. 28, October, 1929.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine Articles on Administration and Supervision. (pp. 28)\$.25

Bulletin No. 29, January, 1930.

Reports on Studies in Class Size and on Failures. Bibliography on Relative Efficiency of Classes of Different Sizes. (pp. 44)\$.25

Bulletin No. 30, Proceedings of the Atlantic City (1930) Meeting.

Papers on Curriculum, Guidance, Technical Courses, Graduation, Finances (4), Standards and Future of High Schools. *Junior High School*: Finances, Reading and Articulation. (4). *Junior College*: A State Institution (2), Standards, Articulation, Terminal Courses, Four-Year Junior College, in California, Curriculum, and Teacher load. Reports of Department Committee on Investigation of Secondary Education. (pp. 301)\$2.00

Bulletin No. 31, April, 1930.

History and Organization of the National Honor Society. (pp. 26)\$.25

Bulletin No. 32, May, 1930.

Diploma Practices in Secondary Schools. (pp 31)\$.25

Bulletin No. 33, October, 1930.

Abstracts of Books and of Magazine articles on Administration and Supervision. Also a Directory of Members. (pp. 91)\$.50

Bulletin No. 34, January, 1931.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Southern California. (116 pp.)\$.50

Bulletin No. 35, Proceedings of the Detroit (1931) Meeting.
.....\$ 2.00

Papers on Philosophy of Education (1), of Secondary Education (2); Guidance (2); Extra-Curriculum Activities (2); Teaching Methods (1); Curriculum (1); Dramatics (1); Teaching load (1); Department Heads (1); and Libraries (1). *Junior High School: The Principal* (1), *Function of* (1), *Guidance in* (1), *Home room Program of* (1), and *Parent-Teacher Activities of* (1). *Junior College: Finances of* (1), *Defense of* (3), *Curriculum of* (1).

Bulletin No. 36, April, 1931.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration, University of Southern California, concluded. (pp. 68)\$.50

Bulletin No. 37, May, 1931.

A Study of the Influence of Departmental Specialization on the Professional Attitudes of High-School Teachers Toward Certain Administrative Problems. (pp. 70)\$.50

Bulletin No. 38, October, 1931.

Secondary-School Administration Abstracts, and Directory, (pp. 112)\$.50

Bulletin No. 39, January, 1932.

Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary School Administration, Ohio State University \$1.00

UNIFORM CERTIFICATES

The Department of Secondary-School Principals has been distributing uniform certificates of recommendation for over ten years. At first they were sent out free to the members of the Department, but the demand for the certificates became so great that the printing and mailing charges became a burden to the treasury. Therefore, a change had been made.

The blanks are used in transferring pupils from one secondary school to another and particularly from high school to college. The certificates are sent postpaid at the following prices:

Mailing from							
Chicago		100	200	300	400	500	1000
1st zone	-----	\$.80	\$1.50	\$2.20	\$2.80	\$3.40	\$6.00
2nd "	-----	.80	1.50	2.20	2.80	3.45	6.10
3rd "	-----	.85	1.55	2.25	2.85	3.50	6.20
4th "	-----	.85	1.60	2.30	3.00	3.75	6.45
5th "	-----	.90	1.65	2.40	3.05	3.90	6.60
6th "	-----	.90	1.70	2.45	3.15	4.00	6.80
7th "	-----	.95	1.75	2.55	3.25	4.15	7.00
8th "	-----	1.00	1.80	2.60	3.35	4.25	7.20

The blanks will be mailed on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

Direct orders to:

H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

THE STANDARD HIGH-SCHOOL PERSONAL
RECORD CARDS

The standard record forms (5x8) which were approved by the Department of Secondary-School Principals at the meeting at Boston are now printed on cardboard suitable for vertical filing systems. This card is especially designed for small and medium size high schools.

Space is provided on these blanks for scholarship records for five years. An extra year is included for pupils of four-year high schools who may desire to do graduate work. It is recommended that six year junior-senior schools use separate cards for the records of the junior and of the senior schools.

When the guidance information called for in the lower right hand corner seems to be of a changeable nature, as would often be true of such items as "Vocational Preference," it is suggested that it be written in pencil so that it can be erased and changed when necessary.

The schedule of prices, postpaid, follows:

Zones	100	200	500	1000
1 and 2	\$1.35	\$2.65	\$4.85	\$ 8.85
3	1.38	2.70	4.95	9.00
4	1.40	2.75	5.05	9.15
5	1.42	2.80	5.15	9.35
6	1.45	2.85	5.30	9.55
7	1.48	2.90	5.40	9.75
8	1.50	2.95	5.50	10.00

The cards will be shipped on receipt of price, or C. O. D.

Direct orders to,
H. V. Church,
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GROUP LIFE INSURANCE

The Department offers to its members life insurance in its most inexpensive form. The salient features of the plan are:

1. *Low premium.* The premium is ten dollars a year a thousand for those insured for \$3,000. See table below for rates for those over forty-five years of age. It can now be guaranteed that the second annual premium of the policies issued to members of the department will be slightly less than the premiums of the first year.
2. *No medical examination* (with exceptions).
3. *Total and permanent disability benefits.* If an insured member becomes totally and permanently disabled, his insurance will be paid in monthly installments.
4. *Conversion privilege.* When an insured member leaves the profession to enter another professional or economic group, he may convert his group policy into any of the policies (except term insurance) customarily issued by the insurance company for the same amount at the current rates of the attained age.
5. *Age limit is sixty-five years.*
6. *Individual policies.* These show rights of insured, amount, and beneficiary.
7. *Current protection.* There are no savings, accumulation, or paid-up features. Insurance is for one year at a time, and is renewable each year, at the option of the insured member.
9. *Amounts offered:*
\$3,000 for all ages from 21 to 45 (nearest birthday) in-

clusive. Annual Rates for those under 45 years are \$10 a year per \$1000. \$1,500 for all ages from 46 to 65 (nearest birthday) inclusive.

Annual Rates per \$1,000 for those 45 or older:

Age	Premium	Age	Premium	Age	Premium
45	\$11.10	52	\$16.90	59	\$28.15
46	11.65	53	18.15	60	30.40
47	12.30	54	19.50	61	32.90
48	13.05	55	20.90	62	35.50
49	13.90	56	22.50	63	38.40
50	14.80	57	24.25	64	41.50
51	15.80	58	26.10	65	44.90

Send for application blanks to H. V. Church, Executive Secretary, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois.

AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

The Department of Secondary-School Principals is now prepared to offer to its members reduced rates for automobile insurance. If you are interested in protection for your car at a lower premium than you are now paying, fill out the blank on page 46, and send it to H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Avenue, Berwyn, Illinois. Be sure to state clearly what coverage you now have, and particularly what you are now paying for this insurance.

The Fort Dearborn Insurance Company assures us that the "special rate will figure about 35% lower than the rate charged by other responsible stock companies."

If you will fill the application blank and send it to the Executive Secretary, the insurance company will quote their special rate to members. You will receive this quotation, and you can then decide if you can save money by accepting this special rate.

APPLICATION BLANK—AUTOMOBILE INSURANCE

Your name

Address

(Street)

(City)

(State)

Date of expiration of policy you now hold

(Policy expires on this date)

Annual premium you now pay. \$.....

Occupation

(Husband's occupation if married woman)

Description of car: Make

Type of body..... Year built

Factory number Engine number

List price Actual cost

New or second hand. Is car fully paid for?.....

(Cross out one)

Mortgage clause to

The car is for business or pleasure?

(Cross out one)

Car kept in public or private garage?

(Cross out one)

Address

(Where car is kept)

Coverage you carry

(Place cross in proper square)

☐ Fire ☐ Property: ☐ 500 ☐ 1,000 ☐ 1,500

(Amount)

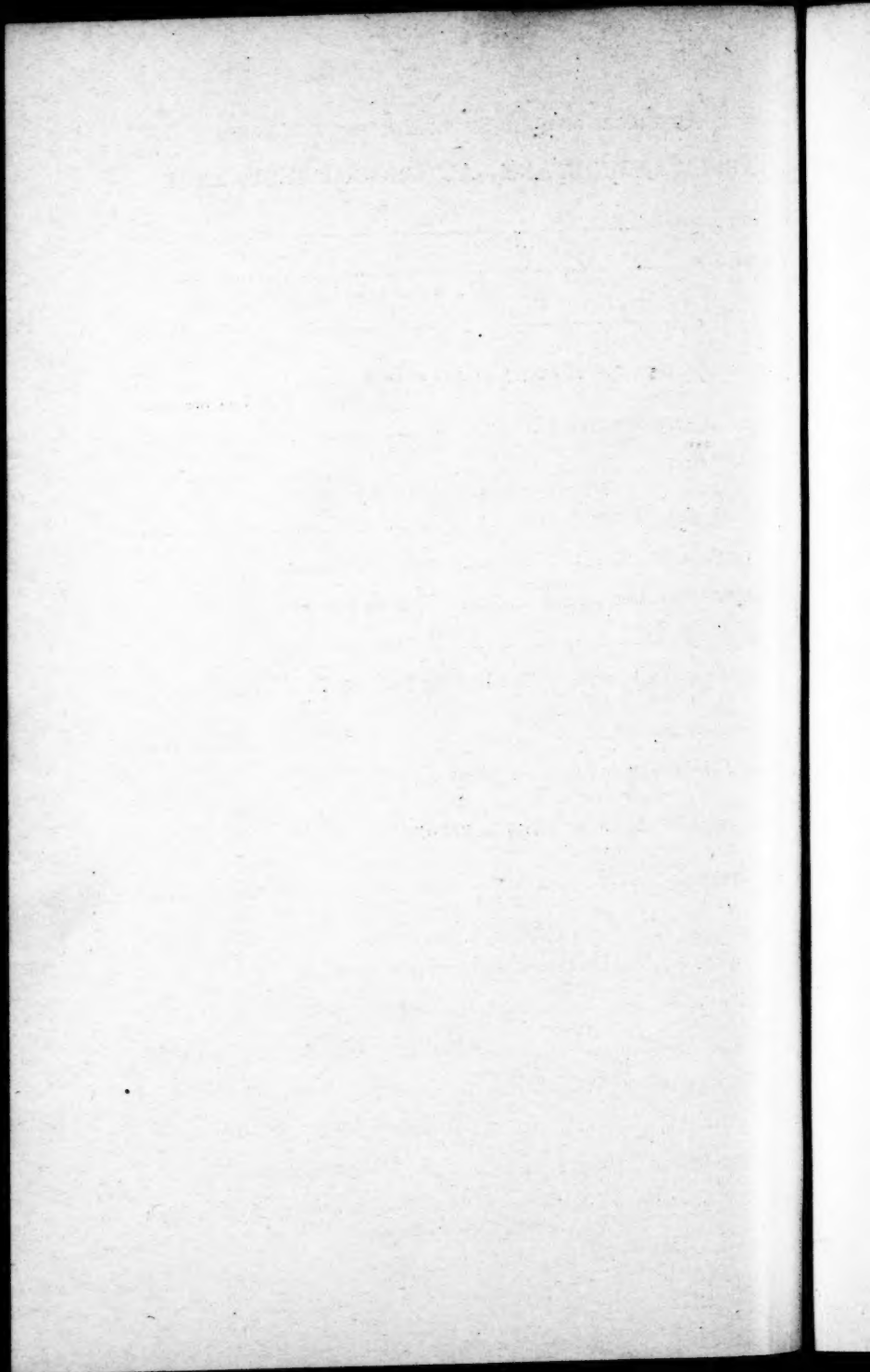
☐ Theft ☐ Liability: ☐ 5-10,000 ☐ 10-20,000

☐ Extra equipment ☐ 20-30,000

☐ Tornado ☐ Collision: ☐ Full ☐ \$25 deduction

☐ Plate glass ☐ \$50 deduction

Mail this application blank to H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.



**THE DEPARTMENT OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**

